

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY AND TRANSFORMATIONAL  
LEADERSHIP IN THE RETAIL INDUSTRY**

**by**

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## DECLARATION

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I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

  
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## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I wish to thank my God, the father almighty. Through him all things are possible, and I am grateful for his love and mercy through this journey. Matthew 19:26

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS.....</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES .....</b>	<b>vii</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES .....</b>	<b>vii</b>
<b>SUMMARY .....</b>	<b>viii</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATIONS .....	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT .....	8
1.3 AIMS .....	9
1.3.1 General aim of the study .....	10
1.3.2 Specific theoretical aims .....	10
1.3.3 Empirical aims of the study.....	10
1.4 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE.....	11
1.4.1 The theoretical paradigm .....	11
1.4.2 Meta-theoretical Paradigm .....	11
1.4.3 Methodological paradigm.....	11
1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN .....	12
1.5.1 Research approach .....	12
1.5.2 Research method.....	12
1.5.2.1 Research participants.....	13
1.5.2.2 Measuring instruments .....	13
1.5.2.3 Research procedure .....	15
1.6 CHAPTER LAYOUT .....	17
1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	18
<b>CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....</b>	<b>19</b>
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	19
2.2 DEFINING LEADERSHIP .....	19
2.3 OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP THEORIES.....	20
2.4 THE TRAIT APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP .....	20
2.5 THE BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP .....	21
2.6 THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP .....	22
2.6.1 Situational leadership.....	22
2.6.2 Path-goal theory .....	23

2.6.3	Vroom-Jago's contingency model .....	25
2.6.4	Leader member exchange theory .....	27
2.6.5	Fiedler's Contingency Model .....	28
2.7	CONTEMPORARY APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP .....	29
2.7.1	Charismatic leadership.....	29
2.7.2	Authentic leadership .....	30
2.7.3	Neuro-leadership.....	32
2.7.4	Transformational leadership .....	34
2.8	PERSONALITY .....	38
2.8.1	The psychoanalytic perspective .....	39
2.8.1.1	Freud.....	39
2.8.1.2	Jung's analytical psychology.....	42
2.8.1.3	Adler's individual psychology .....	45
2.8.2	The behavioural perspective .....	47
2.8.3	The social cognitive perspective.....	49
2.8.4	The humanistic perspective .....	50
2.8.4.1	Roger's person-centred theory .....	50
2.8.4.2	Csikszentmihalyi's autotelic personality .....	52
2.8.4.5	Seligman's happy personality theory.....	53
2.8.5	The biological perspective .....	53
2.8.6	The trait perspective .....	54
2.8.6.1	Allport's theory .....	54
2.8.6.2	Cattell .....	58
2.8.6.3	The Five Factor Model of personality.....	60
2.9	THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TL AND THE FIVE FACTOR MODEL OF PERSONALITY .....	64
2.10	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	67
<b>CHAPTER 3: ARTICLE.....</b>		<b>68</b>
INTRODUCTION .....		70
RESEARCH OBJECTIVE .....		71
WHAT WILL FOLLOW .....		71
LITERATURE REVIEW .....		71
Transformational Leadership .....		71
The Big Five personality factors .....		73
RESEARCH DESIGN.....		75

Research approach.....	75
<b>RESEARCH METHOD .....</b>	<b>75</b>
Research setting.....	75
Research participants and sampling .....	76
<b>STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA .....</b>	<b>79</b>
<b>RESULTS .....</b>	<b>80</b>
Descriptive statistics for the MLQ .....	80
Descriptive statistics for the 15FQ+ .....	80
<b>RELIABILITY OF MEASURING INSTRUMENTS.....</b>	<b>81</b>
Reliability of the MLQ .....	81
Reliability of the 15FQ+ .....	82
<b>CORRELATION ANALYSIS .....</b>	<b>83</b>
Regression analysis .....	84
<b>DISCUSSION.....</b>	<b>85</b>
<b>LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES .....</b>	<b>87</b>
Practical implications for management .....	88
<b>CONCLUSION.....</b>	<b>88</b>
<b>REFERENCE LIST .....</b>	<b>90</b>
<b>CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>	<b>97</b>
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	97
4.2 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE AIMS OF THE STUDY: .....	97
4.2.1 Conclusions regarding the specific theoretical aims of the study.....	97
4.2.1.1 The first theoretical aim .....	97
4.2.1.2 The second theoretical aim.....	99
4.2.1.3 The third theoretical aim .....	101
4.2.2 Conclusions regarding the specific empirical aims of the study .....	102
4.2.2.1 The first empirical aim .....	103
4.2.2.2 The second empirical aim.....	103
4.2.2.3 The third empirical aim .....	104
4.2.2.4 The fourth empirical aim.....	105
4.2.2.5 The fifth empirical aim.....	106
4.2.2.6 The sixth empirical aim.....	106
4.2.2.7 The seventh empirical aim .....	106
4.2.3 Conclusion regarding the general aim of the study .....	106
4.2.4 Conclusions regarding the research hypotheses .....	107

4.3	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY .....	108
4.3.1	Limitations of the literature review .....	108
4.3.2	Limitations of the empirical findings .....	108
4.4	RECOMMENDATIONS .....	109
4.4.1	Recommendations for future research .....	109
4.4.2	Recommendations for the field of IOP .....	110
4.4.3	Recommendations for the participating organization .....	110
4.5	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	111
	<b>REFERENCE LIST.....</b>	<b>112</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Overview of leadership theories .....	20
Table 2.2: Theories of personality .....	39
Table 3.1: Characteristics of the research sample (n = 101) .....	76
Table 3.2: Descriptive statistics for the MLQ (n = 101) .....	80
Table 3.3: Descriptive statistics for the 15FQ+ (n = 101) .....	81
Table 3.4: Reliability statistics for the MLQ (n = 101) .....	81
Table 3.5: Reliability statistics for the 15FQ+ (n = 101) .....	82
Table 3.6: Intercorrelations between TL and the Big Five personality factors (n = 101) .....	83
Table 3.7: Multiple regression analysis with the dimensions of the Big Five personality factors as the independent variables and a Composite TL Score as the dependent variable .....	85

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Full model of transformational leadership .....	2
Figure 2.1: Path goal theory of leadership .....	24
Figure 2.2: The full range leadership model .....	36
Figure 2.3: The big five personality factors .....	60



## SUMMARY

The new economy is characterised by globalisation, increased competition, and rapid changes. In order to remain competitive, organisations need to be proactive and innovative to survive. This is mirrored in the South African retail industry which is developing into a dynamic industry driven by changes in technology, shifts in consumer behaviour, saturating markets, and increased competition as a result of globalisation. In light of these increased demands on organisations to be more flexible, adaptable, and competitive, new demands have subsequently been placed on leaders. The retail industry is highly labour-intensive and requires effective leadership at all levels, and Transformational Leadership (TL) has been shown to be an effective leadership style to improve various organisational outcomes.

In recent years, personality has been used as a means to predict TL behaviours in leaders. One model of personality that has proved its utility in identifying leadership characteristics has been the Five Factor Model of Personality. However, not much is known about the relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors in the retail industry.

The current study utilised a quantitative research approach in which 101 leaders in a retail organisation in South Africa were assessed on TL and the Big Five personality factors, using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the Fifteen Factor Plus Personality Questionnaire. Correlation analysis was conducted to determine the statistical relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors.

Results indicated that there were no statistically significant relationships between three of the Big Five personality factors, namely extraversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness, and any of the TL dimensions or the composite TL score. There are two statistically significant relationships between one Big Five personality factor, namely agreeableness, and two TL dimensions, namely inspirational motivation (.196;  $p < .05$ ), and individualised consideration (.200;  $p < .05$ ). Only one Big Five personality factor, namely emotional stability, is statistically significantly related to all the TL dimensions as well as the composite TL score, ranging from a low of .539 ( $p < .01$ ) for idealised behaviour to a high of .556 ( $p < .01$ ) for the composite TL score.

The study concluded that the Big Five personality factors should be used with caution to identify and develop potential TL behaviours in the diverse South African retail context.

**Keywords:** Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, Big Five personality factors, leadership, personality, retail industry, anxiety, conscientiousness, openness to experience, extraversion, agreeableness

## **CHAPTER 1. SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH**

Chapter 1 contains the background and motivation, the problem statement, the aims, paradigm perspective, research design and method, as well as the chapter layout.

### **1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATIONS**

The new economy is characterised by globalisation, increased competition, and rapid changes. In order to remain competitive organisations, need to be proactive and innovative to survive (Morian, Molero, Topa, & Mangin, 2011). This is mirrored in the retail industry and Van der Westhuizen and Kok (2006) argued that the South African retail Industry is developing into a dynamic industry driven by changes in technology, shifts in consumer behaviour, saturating markets, and increased competition as a result of globalisation.

Van der Merwe and Verwey (2007) add that emerging future markets are characterised by urgency for speed, growing complexity and a need for innovation. Research suggests that leaders play an integral role in the competitiveness of organisations in the global economy (Nawal & Bodla, 2010).

In light of these increased demands on organisations to be more flexible, adaptable, and competitive, new demands have subsequently been placed on leaders (Bennett, 2009). This is characterised by managers being involved in the day-to-day operational functions of the business as well as being able to lead, motivate and inspire employees with a vision (Bennett, 2009).

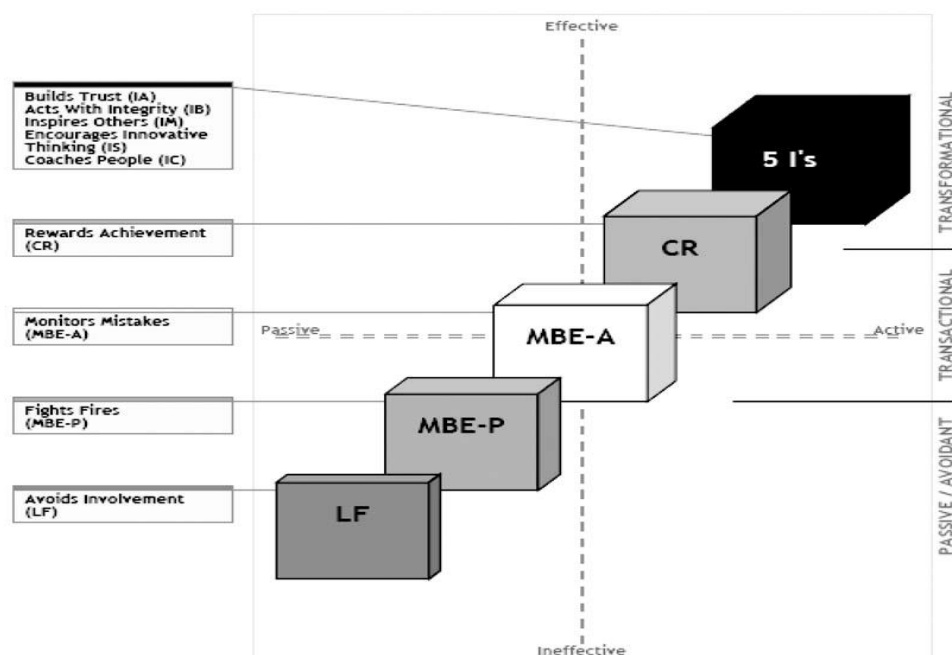
Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey (2011) state that leadership is one of the most discussed and debated topics in social sciences. Early research on the topic began with heritable attributes that differentiated leaders from non-leaders, namely the trait paradigm of leadership (Nawal & Bodla, 2010). Modern research has focused on individual characteristics, such as demographics, skills, abilities, and personality traits, to predict leadership effectiveness (Derue et al., 2011).

Most recently, the behaviour of leaders and their interaction with subordinates have been studied, with researchers arguing that leaders need to maintain positive interactions with subordinates to be effective. One leadership model that has gained credibility is the TL model (Nawal & Bodla, 2010). This model

has proved suitable in the context of the global economy (Judge & Bono, 2000; Hautala, 2005; Stanescu & Rosca, 2010). Moreover, the flattening of organisational structures and the elimination of middle-management structures has required leadership to be evident on all levels of the organisation (Hautala, 2006).

The TL model is one that can be applied to all employees occupying various levels in the organisation (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999).

**Figure 1.1:** Full Model of Transformational Leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1994)



The full TL model consists of laissez faire, transactional and TL behaviour (Judge & Bono, 2000). Laissez faire leadership refers to behaviour where leaders avoid accepting and carrying out any leadership and management responsibilities (Judge & Bono, 2000, 2004).

Transactional leaders usually display behaviour associated with management by exception and contingent rewards. Management by exception can be broken down further into two categories, namely active transactional leadership, and passive transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is characterised by correcting subordinate behaviour to reach organisational goals (Lee, Koenigsberg, Davidson, & Beto, 2010; Stanescu & Rosca, 2010).

Leaders taking the active form of management by exception focus their attention on mistakes, complaints and poor performance or rule violations and then take corrective measures (Judge & Bono, 2000; Vrba, 2007). In contrast, the leader using passive management by exception only intervenes after detecting serious mistakes (Judge & Bono, 2000; Vrba, 2007). Active management by exception is mainly concerned with putting out fires and in some circumstances, this may be necessary to satisfy operational requirements (Judge & Bono, 2000; Vrba, 2007). Active and passive management by exception is both based on reinforcement of rules and avoiding mistakes (Stanescu & Rosca, 2010).

Contingent reward leadership involves the leader assigning or obtaining follower agreement on what needs to be done by promising rewards or producing rewards (Stanescu & Rosca, 2010). Of interest, contingent reward can be considered transformational if the reward is psychological in nature, such as praise or recognition (Stanescu & Rosca, 2010).

Central to TL are the following five related behavioural characteristics:

- Idealised influences, which refer to the socialised charisma of the leader, based on the leader's perceived confidence and power and whether the leader is considered ethical (Judge & Bono, 2000; Nawaz & Bodla, 2010).
- Inspirational motivation, which refers to the leader's ability to communicate a shared vision to make change efforts worthwhile to subordinates (Judge & Bono, 2000; Nawaz & Bodla, 2010).
- Intellectual stimulation, which involves challenging and stimulating followers to go beyond self-interests in pursuit of organisational goals (Judge & Bono, 2000; Nawaz & Bodla, 2010).
- Individual consideration, which refers to the leader's ability to coach and alleviate the concerns of subordinates, ranging from physical to psychological needs (Judge & Bono, 2000; Nawaz & Bodla 2010)

- Idealised attributes, which represent the highest level of TL (Vrba, 2007). This involves subordinates identifying fully with the leader and is used to develop the subordinate to the benefit of the organisation. Such leaders are perceived as authentic and have a high degree of credibility among their associates (Vrba, 2007).

In recent years, personality has been used as a means to predict transformational behaviour in leaders (Judge & Bono, 2004). Personality is defined as stable, unique, and consistent traits exhibited by all individuals in their behaviour (Gregory, 2013). One model of personality that has proved its utility in identifying leadership characteristics has been the Five Factor Model of Personality (Judge & Bono, 2004).

Tupes and Christal (1961) are commonly credited with discovering the Big Five, though their discovery was born from a reanalysis of data collected much earlier by Raymond Cattell (1947) (Judge & Bono, 2000). All five factors of personality are thought to encompass several correlated but distinct lower-level dimensions or traits.

The communality of the specific traits defines each of the five broad factors. The five factors are found consistently through different research methods across time, contexts, and cultures (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005; McCormack & Mellor, 2002; Thalmayer, Saucier, & Eigenhuis, 2011).

The Big Five traits are broad personality constructs that are manifested in more specific traits.

Factor 1: Extraversion represents the tendency to be outgoing, assertive, active and excitement-seeking. Individuals scoring high on extraversion are strongly predisposed to experience positive emotions (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002).

Factor 2: Agreeableness consists of tendencies to be kind, gentle, trusting, trustworthy and warm. (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002).

Factor 3: Conscientiousness is indicated by two major facets: achievement and dependability. Conscientiousness is the trait from the five-factor model that correlates best with job performance (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002.).

Factor 4: Emotional adjustment is often labelled by its opposite, neuroticism, which is the tendency to be anxious, fearful, depressed, and moody (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002.).

Emotional adjustment is the principal Big Five trait that has been shown to lead to life satisfaction and freedom from depression and other mental ailments (Judge & Bono, 2004).

Finally, Factor 5: Openness to experience (sometimes labelled intellectance), represents the tendency to be creative, imaginative, perceptive, and thoughtful. Openness to experience is the only Big Five trait to display significant correlations with intelligence (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002).

Research has found that TL contributes to subordinates reporting feelings of individual empowerment and group empowerment, leading to team effectiveness (Ozaralli, 2003). In addition, TL has been shown to influence an employee's organisational commitment when leaders share a vision, support group goals, and provide intellectual stimulation (Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012).

Morales, Jimenez-Barrionuevo, and Gutierrez-Gutierrez (2012) found that TL plays a vital role in organisational learning and organisational innovation. They found that the TL style influenced the overall performance of the organisation through organisational learning and innovation.

Furthermore, significant relationships between the five dimensions of TL and job satisfaction for employees have been found (Hautala, 2006; Mokgolo, Mokgolo, & Modiba, 2012; Mohammad, Al-Zeaud, Mohammad, & Batayne, 2011). Mariano et al. (2011) also found that transformational leaders promoted intrapreneurial behaviour in their followers.

Transformational leaders have also proven to be more readily accepted by their staff when compared to transactional leaders and to display high levels of management effectiveness and leadership performance, as well as being more likely to advance in organisations than leaders displaying other leadership styles (Johnsen, Eid, Pallesen, Bartone, & Nissestad, 2009; Mokgolo et al., 2012). Evidence has supported the validity of TL across many different cultures, using a variety of methods (Judge & Bono, 2000).

Research on the Five Factor Model has demonstrated the usefulness of personality traits based on this model in predicting job performance, training criteria, job satisfaction, leadership and counterproductive behaviour such as deviant behaviour and turnover (Sanz, Gil, Garcia-Vera, & Barrasa, 2008).

Furthermore, the model has been successfully applied to the construct of leadership and correlation studies have found correlations between leadership characteristics and personality traits (Judge & Bono, 2004).

Existing literature has found that effective leaders tend to score higher on extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness and lower on neuroticism when compared to ineffective leaders (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Judge, 2004).

Of interest, McCormack and Mellor (2002) in their study set in a military environment found that effective leaders scored lower on the extraversion scale; this could be attributed to the military environment in which the study was completed. Furthermore, the high score on conscientiousness could be attributed to the determination and strong will required to be a military leader. It could be argued that neuroticism could be negatively related to leadership because neurotic individuals are less likely to attempt to reach leadership positions because of the low expectations they set for themselves.

Therefore, one has to consider the effect of context in the interpretation of results such as situational factors, which may influence what is considered leadership or promotable factors in individuals (McCormack & Mellor, 2002). However, despite these limitations, understanding the relative importance of specific leader traits and behaviours as predictors of leadership effectiveness can help organisations improve their leader selection and development practices (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011).

When applied specifically to TL, Judge and Bono (2000) found that extraversion and agreeableness predicted TL; openness to experience was positively correlated with TL. However, its effect disappeared once the other traits were controlled. Lastly, neuroticism and conscientiousness were unrelated to TL.

In a later study, Judge and Bono (2004) found that extraversion was the strongest and most consistent correlate of TL. However, they found weak associations and suggested future research on narrower



personality traits. In contrast, Shao, and Webber (2006) found that the personality traits positively associated with TL behaviour in the North American context were not evident in the Chinese environment.

Of interest, Felte and Schyns (2010) suggested that the raters, i.e., employees of the leaders, vary in their assessment of leaders owing to their individual characteristics and the environment. They further argue that followers similar to transformational leaders are likely to form transformational relationships and are thus likely to view their managers as transformational leaders.

Bono, Hooper, and Yoon (2012) found that rater personality (agreeableness, openness, extraversion, and conscientiousness) was positively associated with ratings of TL. In addition, they suggested that disagreements among raters about leaders' behaviours were not due solely to random error and may instead reflect true differences in either (a) the behaviour leaders exhibit toward individual followers or (b) personality-related differences between followers in attention to and recall of leadership behaviour.

The employee and manager relationship are an interactive process and followers play an active role in the way they are managed. Increased interest has been given to follower-centric research in order to understand the role of the follower (Felfe & Schyns, 2010).

Lastly, Nielson, and Daniels (2012) suggested that TL needed to be studied as a group phenomenon. Group-level perceptions may have an impact on followers' well-being and leaders need to be cognisant of the group as a whole in their interactions.

Zopiatis and Constanti (2012) indicated that while TL is positively associated with extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness, no association with agreeableness and neuroticism was found. This finding was contrary to what Judge and Bono (2004) reported. In addition, they found that the personality trait that best predicts a preference for a particular leadership style is conscientiousness. The results of their study indicated that individuals who are highly conscientious and diligent are likely to adopt a TL style.

From the research it would appear that TL is a desirable leadership style for leaders in any organisation. Organisations should seek to identify, promote, and develop TL styles in their leaders (Zopiatis &

Constanti, 2012).

In light of the Five Factor Model's utility in identifying TL, it is pertinent to study the relationship between the two variables in varying contexts. In their research on personality traits and TL, Zopiatis and Constanti (2012) suggested further research on other cultural groups with a large sample size to add to the existing knowledge on the relationship between the two variables.

In a meta-analysis on TL and personality, Deiner, Homan, Boer, Voelpel, & Guterman (2015) found that the Five Factor Model of personality traits are directly linked to TL sub-dimensions and the overall measure, however different combinations of personality traits were differently related to TL behaviours, as such further research is required on examining the sub-dimensions and antecedents of TL behaviours.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The South African retail industry is the largest in Sub-Saharan Africa and the 20th largest in the global retail market (Fouche & Wilkinson, 2012). The retail industry contributes 13.4% to the South African gross domestic product (GDP) and together with the wholesale and trade industry is the biggest employer in the country, with 3.18 million workers (Sewell, Mason, & Venter, 2014). As with other sectors, the retail industry has been impacted by globalisation with shifts in consumer behaviour, saturating markets and increased competition (Van der Westuized & Kok, 2006).

The increased demands on organisations to be more flexible, adaptable and competitive have consequently increased the requirement for effective leadership, especially regarding the ability to motivate and inspire employees to achieve stated visions (Daft, 2018).

The retail industry is highly labour-intensive and requires effective leadership at all levels. Furthermore, Dienert et al. (2015) argued that there is strong empirical evidence that TL is highly effective when compared to other leadership styles in meeting the challenges of modern, changing and uncertain work environments.

While there are research articles on the relationship between the Five Factor Model and TL in the South African context, little research has been done in this regard in the retail industry and given the importance

of this sector for the national economy, this is a strong reason for conducting the research.

It is anticipated that the results of this study will inform recruitment practices and possible interventions implemented by the organisation to assist employees of all personality types to develop leadership behaviour.

The following hypotheses have been formulated for this study:

Hypothesis 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between TL and its sub-dimensions and the Big Five personality factors.

Hypothesis 2: The Big Five personality factors are a statistically significant predictor of a composite TL measure.

The following research questions are formulated for this study:

Theoretical research questions:

- 1) How is the concept of TL conceptualised in the literature?
- 2) How are the benefits of TL conceptualised in literature?
- 3) How are the Five Factor Model personality traits conceptualised in the literature?

Empirical research questions:

- 1) The relationship between the Five Factor personality traits and TL.
- 2) The relationship between leadership types and personality.
- 3) The relationship between leadership types and observed behaviour.

### **1.3 AIMS**

The following general and specific aims are formulated:

### **1.3.1 General aim of the study**

The general aim of the study is to determine the relationship between personality and TL in the retail sector.

### **1.3.2 Specific theoretical aims of the study**

The specific theoretical aims of the study are as follows:

- To conceptualise the Big Five Factor Model of personality.
- To conceptualise TL.
- To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between the Big Five Factor Model of personality and TL.

The specific empirical aims of the study are as follow:

### **1.3.3 Specific empirical aims of the study**

- To measure the Big Five Personality Factors in the retail industry using the Fifteen Factor Plus Personality Questionnaire (15FQ+).
- To measure TL in the retail industry using the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire
- To determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between the Big Five Personality Factors and TL in the retail industry.
- To determine whether the Big Five Personality Factors can be used to predict TL in the retail industry.
- To recommend future areas for research regarding the Big Five Personality Factors and TL.
- To make recommendations for the field of IOP concerning the Big Five Personality Factors and TL.
- To make recommendations for the participating organisation

## **1.4 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE**

Paradigms refer to all-encompassing systems of interrelated practice and thinking that define the research method for all researchers. The paradigm acts as the perspective that provides underlying principles for the research. This informs the ontology, epistemology, and methodology (Terre Blanche, Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006).

### **1.4.1 The theoretical paradigm**

The theoretical paradigm used is industrial and organisational psychology. Industrial and organisational psychology refers to the application of psychological principles in the work context (Landy & Conte, 2019), specifically the scientific study of the reciprocal impact of work on life and life on work.

Bass (1997) argues that the transactional-transformational paradigm is relevant in the knowledge economy. He claims that the paradigm is sufficiently broad to provide a universal understanding of leadership. Therefore, it can be applied to a wide range of organisations and cultures.

### **1.4.2 Meta-theoretical Paradigm**

Meta-theoretically this study will be anchored in the positivist research paradigm. Positivism is concerned with external reality according to certain laws and is used by detached and objective observers who have tested their hypotheses against experimental and other quantitative methods (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

The corresponding meta-theoretical paradigm perspective chosen for the research is positivist, which emphasises an objective, detached stance with use of a quantitative method to test a hypothesis. In accordance with the positivist paradigm, the study will utilise instruments that have been validated and empirically test a hypothesis based on theory (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

### **1.4.3 Methodological paradigm**

In designing a research study, there has to be congruence between the research question, methodology and the paradigm (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

The methodological paradigm is a quantitative approach. The accepted approach in this paradigm involves the researcher starting with a theory, followed by the collection of data, which either supports or disproves the theory, and then the necessary amendments are made before additional tests are conducted (Creswell, 2014).

This approach typically employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data (Creswell, 2014).

Methodologically, this study will follow a quantitative approach in order to test a hypothesis, namely the relationship between personality and leadership style.

## **1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN**

### **1.5.1 Research approach**

In this research a quantitative cross-sectional approach has been taken. A quantitative study is characterised by an objective, systematic process in which numerical data is used to obtain information about the research topic. It is useful to describe variables, examine relationships among variables and determine cause and effect interactions between variables (Creswell, 2014).

A cross-sectional design has been used in this study. A cross-sectional design is characterised by the collection of data at one point in time (Creswell, 2014). It provides a snapshot of variables included in the study from the sample (Creswell, 2014). A cross-sectional approach also allows data to be collected from a large number of participants on a number of variables and allows for the collection of data on attitudes and behaviours. It is also useful in generating a hypothesis on future studies (Creswell, 2014). This approach allows for comparison between the variables of personality and leadership, namely the correlation between personality traits and leadership styles (Creswell, 2014).

### **1.5.2 Research method**

The research participants, measuring instruments, research proposal and statistical analysis were as follows:

### **1.5.2.1      *Research participants***

The study sample included employees occupying leadership positions across the various departments in a retail organisation. The participants were required to have at least one employee reporting to them. The participants were head office employees on various levels of management and in different job roles in the host organisation.

### **1.5.2.2      *Measuring instruments***

#### ***a              Measuring personality: The Fifteen Factor Questionnaire***

The 15FQ+ represents a revision and update of the 15FQ questionnaire first published by Psytech in 1992. The 15FQ was developed as an alternative to the 16PF series of tests measuring personality dimensions devised by Cattell and colleagues (Psytech, 2000).

The global factors can be calculated from the primary scores of the 15FQ+ (Psytech, 2000). These global factors, i.e., conscientiousness, openness to experience, extraversion, and emotional adjustment, will be analysed to determine their relationship with various transformational/transactional leadership styles.

The 15FQ+ has been proven valid and reliable to use in the South African context and has norms developed for the South African managerial professional (Psytech, 2000).

In terms of reliability, Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for a professional sample on the standard form ranged from 0.77 to 0.83 for the 16 traits and five broad factors. Similarly, test-retest reliabilities varied from 0.77 to 0.89 (Psytech (n.d) Fifteen Questionnaire technical manual).

When the Five Factor Model dimensions were considered, correlations between the 16PF5 and the 15FQ+ broad dimensions ranged from 0.65 for openness to experience and 0.88 for extroversion (Psytech (n.d) Fifteen Questionnaire technical manual).

Of interest, Meiring, van der Vijver, and Rothmann (2006) raised some concerns about the internal consistency of the measure when compared to the original version and for black groups, which remained

low. Specifically, the consistency levels remained low and they suggested that this continued to limit the usefulness of the questionnaire for black groups.

In addition, Moyo and Theron (2011) in their study on the 15FQ+ adaptation for the South African context, found that the model parameters generally did not reflect the latent personality measures with a great deal of precision. As such, it was therefore suggested that the measure must be used carefully when studying blacks until further research becomes available.

That said, the 15FQ+ has been used in the host organisation previously and the effects of culture will be considered in the interpretation of the results.

*b                      Measuring transformational leadership: The Multi-factor leadership questionnaire*

The Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) identifies the characteristics of a transformational leader and helps individuals discover how they measure up in their own eyes and in the eyes of those with whom they work (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012).

Several questionnaires have been devised to measure TL. However, the MLQ is by far the most widely used (Hautala, 2006). The MLQ assesses the full range of TL constructs. The MLQ is a structured, verbal, omnibus measure of leadership styles. The questionnaire consists of 45 items, which can be applied in self-evaluation form directly to the individual or to the individuals' colleagues, superiors, subordinates, or clients (Stanescu & Rosca, 2010).

The MLQ 5X short or the standard MLQ was used for this study. The MLQ 5X consists of items that measure TL, transactional leadership and laissez faire leadership styles (Bono, Hooper, & Yoon, 2012).

The MLQ measures a broad range of leadership types, from passive leaders to leaders who give contingent rewards to followers, to leaders who transform their followers into becoming leaders themselves (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012). The instrument measures TL as measured by the factors of idealised influence, attributes and behaviours, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012).



Transactional leadership is measured by two factors, contingent rewards, and management by exception (active), while passive/avoidance behaviour is measured by management by exception (passive) and laissez faire behaviour patterns (Zopitas & Constanti, 2012). Each of the items contributes to one factor and the score for that factor is the average of the relevant items.

### **1.5.2.3      *Research procedure***

The participants were asked to complete the questionnaire via a link in an e-mail. The Psytech ‘open system’ approach was taken. This involves communicating with the participants prior to assessment and after assessment to allow questions to be asked and to ensure that the participants had not been harmed in any way through their participation.

All participants completed self-assessment forms on which they rated themselves on how often the leadership behaviour in each statement was practised (Van Eeden, Cilliers & Van der Venter, 2008). Furthermore, the subordinates and supervisor of the participant were asked to rate the participant on observed leadership behaviour across the transformational/transactional leadership styles.

### ***a                      Research variables***

A variable refers to a concept that can be measured. It can be either independent or dependent. The former is characterised by being able to affect or influence another variable. The latter refers to being a result or an outcome of another variable (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

The independent variables for this study were the Five Factor personality traits, while the dependent variables were the eight transactional and transformational leadership styles.

### ***b                      Methods used to ensure reliability and validity:***

Validity: Validity refers to the extent to which conclusions reached in the research are sound (Terre Blanch et al., 2006). This was achieved through the following:

- Using models and theories relevant to the research topic; aim and problem statement as the guideline.

- Selecting measuring instruments applicable to the models and theories informing the study in a standardised manner.

Internal validity: Internal validity refers to the extent to which the findings are said to follow in a direct and unproblematic way from the method (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). It is anticipated that the results of the study will provide insight into the research questions and satisfy the aims proposed in the study.

External validity: External validity refers to the extent to which the findings are generalisable to other populations or situations (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The sample population was sourced from one organisation; it was not possible to source a representative sample from the host organisation. The results can therefore not be generalised.

#### *c Sampling and data integrity*

The study used a non-probability sampling procedure. This refers to a sampling procedure where the selection elements are not determined by randomness (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The study used purposeful sampling by inviting employees in leadership roles to participate in the study.

The research took the approach of a non-probability convenience sampling procedure, which refers to the fact that the selection of participants was not determined by the principle of randomness (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

The total population consist of 597 370 people (Statistical Release Retail Trade Industry, 2009). The total number of employees in the textiles, clothing and footwear industry is 130 781 or 22% of the total retail population [(Statistics South Africa 2009. (Retail Trade Industry, 2009)].

The data was collected, stored and analysed electronically. The data was password-protected and kept in a secure environment.

#### *d Reliability*

Reliability refers to the degree to which the results of the study can be repeated successfully (Terre Blanch et al., 2006). The procedure followed in the study allows for replication in different contexts.

Data collection: The 15FQ+ data and the MQL data was obtained via an on-line link sent to the participants in the study.

Data management: Data that had been collected was password-protected and stored electronically.

#### *e*                      *Ethical research principles*

The practice most frequently relied on for protecting human participants is informed consent. The purpose of informed consent is to ensure that participants are told about the conditions they will encounter and are given the freedom to accept or decline participation, as well as confirmation that their assessment data will be kept confidential (Ilgen & Bell, 2001).

A consent form was used for this study that stated participants' right to take part in the research voluntarily or to withdraw. The consent form included the purpose of the study, the nature of the research and the likely impact on participants. In addition, the consent form stated that the employees would have access to their individual assessment results and explained the benefits of participating in the research.

#### *f*                      *Statistical analysis*

SPSS was used to ensure data reliability in analysis. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to establish internal consistency and reliability. A quantitative approach was used to evaluate the variables in this study. The data was analysed by means of descriptive, inferential and correlation statistics, using appropriate statistical software.

## **1.6                      CHAPTER LAYOUT**

The chapters were presented in the following manner.

Chapter 2      Literature review.

Chapter 3      Article.

Chapter 4      Conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

## **1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In chapter 1 the scientific orientation to the research was discussed. This contained the background and motivation, the research problem, aims, the paradigm perspective, the research design and method. The chapter ended with the chapter layout.

In the next chapter the literature review will receive attention.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter the concept of TL and personality will be discussed. The chapter starts with a definition of leadership and then discusses the main theories of leadership, which include the trait, behavioural, contingency and contemporary theories. Thereafter, the different personality perspectives are discussed, including the Five Factor Model of personality. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the relationship between TL and the Five Factor Model of personality.

### **2.2 DEFINING LEADERSHIP**

Leadership is one of the most widely researched and discussed topics in all areas of organisational sciences because of its impact on the success of an organisation and various types and levels of leadership (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Researchers agreed that it is difficult to define leadership as a construct (Dickson, Castan, Magomaeva, & Den Hartog, 2012).

In addition to difficulties in defining the concept, there has also been debate on whether leaders are born or made. Yukl and Mahsud (2010) argued that the answer is yes to both questions. Specifically, they argue that leaders are born with hereditary competencies and that these are enhanced through life experiences, learning and opportunities. Therefore, related leadership competencies can potentially be learned, trained and coached.

Social scientists have sought to discover the relevant traits, abilities and behaviour to determine how well leaders are able to influence their followers to achieve the task assigned (Yukl, 2010). In addition to that, researchers are attempting to understand the various levels on which leadership occurs and what makes it effective or ineffective (Yukl, 2010).

For the purposes of the study, the following definition will be used: Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl, 2010).

## 2.3 OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP THEORIES

The topic of leadership effectiveness has been of interest for decades, especially the topic of what makes an individual an effective leader (Yukl, 2010). According to Yukl (2010), leadership theories can be categorised into the following approaches, as depicted in figure 2.1 below.

**Table 2.1:** Overview of Leadership Theories (adapted from Yukl, 2010)

Leadership Approach	Leadership models & theories	Contributors
Trait Approach	Contingency Approach Model	Hersey & Blanchard (1969) Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975) Vroom & Jago (1988) Leadership House & Mitchell (1975) Fiedler (1978)
Behavioural approach	Charismatic Leadership Authentic Leadership Neuroleadership Transformational Leadership	House (1977) Avolio & Gardner (2005) Rock (2008) Burns (1978) Bass (1985)

## 2.4 THE TRAIT APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

In the 19th and 20th centuries, trait theories were popular. These were named the ‘great man’ leadership theories, as they were based on the premise that leadership qualities were inherited particularly from ‘great men’ in the upper class. This meant that great men were born rather than made (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

This approach assumes that some individuals are born natural leaders, with innate traits that set them apart from others. These traits included abilities such as energy, intuition, foresight and persuasiveness (Yukl, 2010).

Currently, researchers acknowledge that external and contextual factors such as commitment, motivation and satisfaction also play key roles in the effectiveness of any leadership approach or style (Landy & Conte, 2019).

The shortfall of studying specific leadership traits was described as its inability to consider the great diversity of situations in which leaders may function or find themselves (Chemers, 2000). Research on leadership has progressed from identifying leader traits to how leaders' attributes are related to their behaviour and effectiveness (Yukl, 2010).

## **2.5 THE BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP**

Following the shortcomings of trait leadership studies, researchers turned their attention to the study of leader behaviour as a means of identifying potential leaders (Chemers, 2000).

By the 1950s it was evident that the trait approach was not providing any answers on how to identify leaders (Landy & Conte, 2019). Many researchers became discouraged about the trait approach and focused on the activities and responsibilities of those in managerial positions in investigating what was deemed effective leader behaviour (Yukl, 2010).

In studies conducted at Ohio State University, two behaviours were identified:

- **Consideration:** This refers to behaviour indicating mutual trust, respect, warmth, rapport and concern for the group members' needs (Landy & Conte, 2019).
- **Initiating:** This refers to leaders defining the role they expect each member to assume, assigning tasks, planning ahead and establishing ways of getting things done (Landy & Conte, 2019).

Simultaneous to the Ohio University studies, a Michigan research team studied leadership by comparing groups that showed effective and ineffective behaviours (Landy & Conte, 2019). The researchers identified task-orientated behaviour (initiating structure), but also relations-orientated behaviour, which was similar to what was described as consideration in the Ohio State model. The Michigan studies proposed participative leadership behaviour, which was a departure from the Ohio studies. Participative behaviour refers to the leader allowing subordinates to participate in decision-making through open lines of communication with the manager (Landy & Conte, 2019).

Another behavioural approach is the managerial grid described by Blake and Mouton (1964). The model identifies five theories of managerial behaviour based on two variables, namely concern for output and concern for people (Blake, Mouton, Barnes, & Grenier, 1964). The influence of the manager's concern for production and that of the concern for people is contrasted, and a grid is used to rate the behaviour of the managers through self-ratings and ratings from subordinates. The provided descriptions of common managerial styles, ranging from the least preferred to the most ideal leadership styles. The benefit of the managerial grid is that it provides insight into how leaders perceive themselves in relation to how their subordinates perceive them (Fisher, 2009).

The utility of the managerial grid has been challenged by the lack of direction given to the leader to develop the ideal leadership skills. In addition, it suggests equal emphasis on tasks and people, regardless of the employees/subordinates (Fisher, 2009). A shortcoming of the behavioural approach to leadership is that the measurement of behaviour is done predominantly through surveys, which are used to investigate the relationship between leadership behaviour and the antecedents and outcomes of the behaviour. These surveys are vulnerable to bias (Yukl, 2010). In addition, field experiments are difficult to conduct in organisations without being manipulated by the setting (Yukl, 2010).

## **2.6 THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP**

The contingency approach to leadership includes the five theories discussed below.

### **2.6.1 Situational leadership**

The study of leadership changed with the introduction of contingency models. Contingency models arose as researchers acknowledged the situational factors or context in which leadership takes place (Lande & Conte, 2019). The factors that were considered were the characteristics of followers, the nature of the work, the type of organisation and any relevant external factors (Yukl, 2010).

The situational approach is a contingency theory proposed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969) which stated that the leader will display behaviour based on the level of 'maturity' a subordinate possesses. A high-maturity subordinate has the ability and the confidence to complete the task assigned, while a low-maturity subordinate lacks the confidence and the ability. The maturity level of the subordinate can be



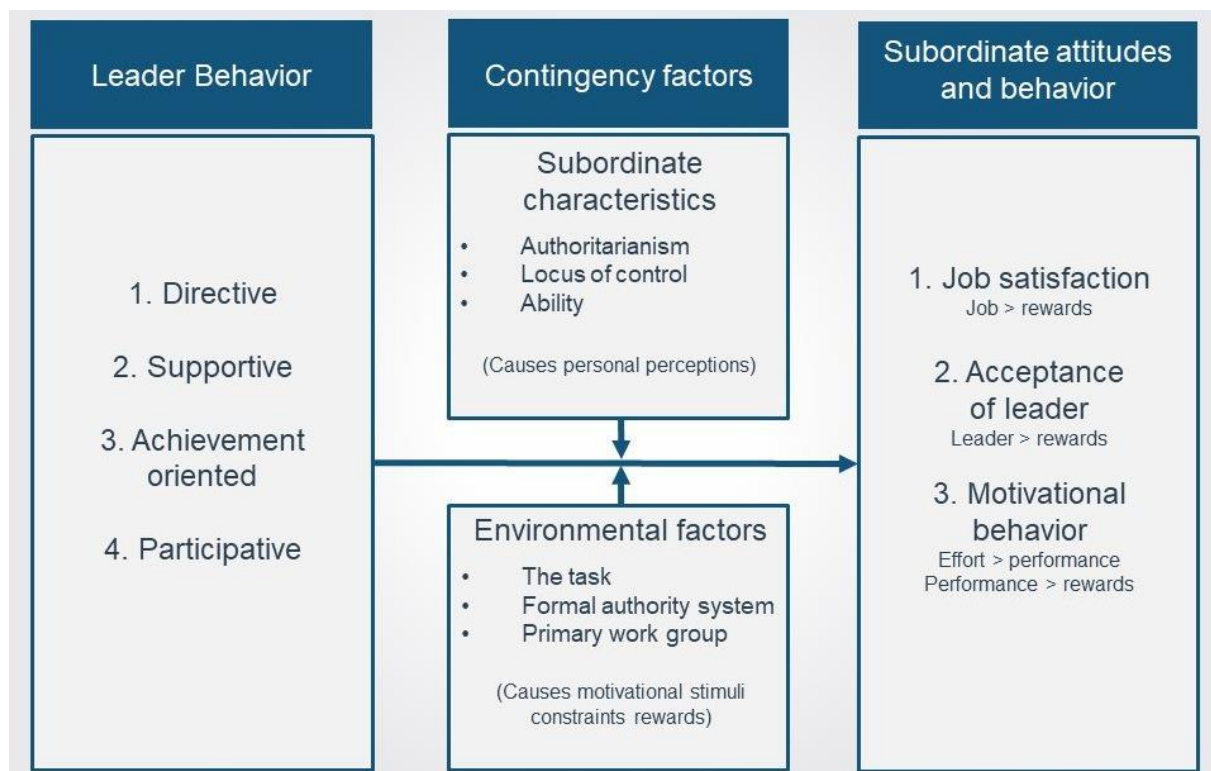
influenced by developmental interventions through contingency contracting where the leader and subordinate negotiate on how the leader will help the subordinate accomplish the task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

Research on contingency models centred on the degree to which the overall situation gave the leader feelings of certainty, predictability and control over group processes. The dimensions were combined into situational favourableness or situational control (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

The main criticism of the situational approach to leadership is that leadership behaviour is not clearly defined. There is also lack of clarity on the process followed by the leader to influence a subordinate's performance. Nevertheless, it has made some contributions in terms of researchers' understanding of dyadic leadership and the importance of treating subordinates differently based on the situation (Yukl, 2010).

## 2.6.2 Path-goal theory

**Figure 2.1:** Path Goal Theory of Leadership (House & Mitchell, 1975)



Path-goal theory suggests that the leader's main purpose is to motivate subordinates by providing insight into how their task-related performance can help them achieve their personal goals. Path-goal theory includes both the characteristics of the subordinate and the characteristics of the situation. The role of the leader is to show the subordinate the path to the valued goals. In turn the leader influences the satisfaction and performance of the follower (House & Mitchell, 1975).

The path-goal theory describes four distinct leadership styles:

- Supportive leadership: referring to the leader creating a friendly, supportive environment.
- Directive leadership: referring to the leader specifying task-related scheduling and making expectations clear.
- Participative leadership: referring to the leader involving subordinates in discussion and decision-making.
- Achievement-orientated leadership: referring to the leader providing subordinates with realistic but challenging goals that can be attained (Landy & Conte, 2019).

According to House et al. (1975), the effect of the leader's behaviour on the subordinates' satisfaction and effort depended on aspects of the situation, including task characteristics and subordinates' characteristics. These factors determine the subordinate's motivation and the manner in which the manager can lead the subordinate.

Research on the path-goal theory centred on the effect the leader's directedness (initiation, structure) or supportiveness (consideration) behaviours have on the motivation and performance of the subordinate. The theory predicts that leader structuring will motivate the subordinate in situations of high complexity. When subordinates are provided with enough structure, a leader displaying directedness would be experienced as micromanaging, which would have negative effects (Chemers, 2000).

Consideration was perceived as positive when the leader displayed this behaviour when a subordinate required psychological or emotional support to deal with the environment or an unchallenging task. It was seen as unnecessary when subordinates were actively engaged in their work and did not require additional support from the manager (Chemers, 2000).

Yukl (2010) stated that the utility of the path-goal theory has been limited by its conceptual deficiencies. The greatest weakness is the reliance on expectancy theory as a primary basis for explaining leader influence. Expectancy theory is criticised for not considering emotional reactions to decision dilemmas such as denial or distortion of relevant information. In addition, it does not consider important aspects such as human motivation and self-concept (Yukl, 2010).

An additional conceptual limitation is the theory's reliance on the broad categories of leader behaviour that do not closely correspond with the mediating process. Furthermore, arguably some of the explanations for the hypothesized relationships in path-goal theory have raised concern, as it is assumed that role ambiguity will cause an individual to have unrealistically low expectations and a leader providing greater clarity will automatically increase expectations (Yukl, 2010).

### **2.6.3 Vroom-Jago's contingency model**

The Vroom-Jago model (Vroom & Jago, 1988) focused on the different degrees of participative leadership and how each level of participation influences the quality and accountability of decisions (Daft, 2015). The model starts with the idea that a leader faces a problem that requires a solution, and decisions to solve the problem might be made by a leader alone or by including followers. Vroom and Jago (1988) noted that there are two mediating variables, namely the quality of the decisions made and the acceptance of these decisions by followers.

According to Daft (2015), these mediating variables determined how effective the decision will be after it has been implemented with implications for the team. The effects of the decision procedures on decision quality and acceptance depends on various aspects of the situation and the suitability of the decision chosen.

According to Daft (2015), the effectiveness of a decision depended on several facets of the situation, namely 1), the amount of relevant information at the disposal of the leader and the subordinates, 2) the likelihood of the autocratic decision being accepted by subordinates, 3), the likelihood of subordinates' cooperation if given a chance to participate, 4), the amount of consensus or disagreement in discussing alternatives, 5), the structure of the problem, and whether it requires creative problem-solving.

Other variables to consider are the importance of the decision and whether the decision will be accepted by subordinates even if they are not consulted.

Acceptance of the decision refers to the degree of commitment to implement it. The basic assumption of the model is that participation increases acceptance of a decision by subordinates; if the subordinates had any influence in making the decision, the likelihood is greater that they will be motivated to implement the decision. Therefore, acceptance of a decision is more likely for decisions born from a consultative process rather than an autocratic process (Daft, 2015).

Decision quality refers to whether the best decision or best option was selected objectively from the variety of options presented, considering potential consequences. The assumption is that consultation and joint decision are equally likely to enhance the quality of decisions when subordinates support the objectives of the leader (Daft, 2015).

Decision rules refer to the set of rules for identifying any procedure that may be inappropriate in a situation because the decision quality or acceptance would be comprised by using that procedure. The rules are guided by the assumptions discussed earlier about the consequences of different decision procedures. (Daft, 2015).

Vroom and Jago (1988) revised the model in order to address some of the shortcomings of the earlier versions. The revised model eliminates some of the procedures from the list of feasible ones but does not indicate which of the remaining procedures are best. The model also allows the manager to prioritise the different criteria and reduce the feasible set to a single procedure.

The model furthermore incorporates other factors that are important in the situation, such as severe time constraints, the amount of subordinate information and the geographical location of subordinates. The decision acceptance criteria for determining optimal decision procedures have also been revised to include subordinate development and concern for decision time (Yukl, 2010). The changes to the model have resulted in a more complex model requiring a computer software program to apply it.

Yukl (2010) stated that criticism has been levelled at the model, referring to the conceptual weaknesses, namely that decision processes are treated as single, isolated incidents that occur at one point in time. This does not mirror the realities of decision makers found in research. Furthermore, leaders are also assumed to have the necessary skills to use each of the decision procedures and to decide on the most appropriate procedure. Others have found that some assumptions of the model are not valid for unskilled leaders.

#### **2.6.4 Leader member exchange theory**

Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975) originally conceptualised member exchange (LMX) theory. They proposed that leaders adapt their approach depending on the individual subordinate; the behaviour develops over time and the relationship depends on the quality of the relationship between the leader and the subordinate.

Dansereau et al. (1975) explained that subordinates fall into two distinct groups:

- In-group: This refers to subordinates who have high-quality relationships with their leader and are therefore in a position to negotiate with their manager when work is assigned.
- Out-group: This refers to the subordinates who have a low-quality relationship with their manager and as such have limited ability to negotiate with their manager. In turn the leader will utilise formal power and influence over subordinate behaviour (Landy & Conte, 2019).

Furthermore, the LMX theory describes how a dyadic relationship develops over time between a leader and a subordinate. During the course of the relationship the leader will give more responsibility and benefit to subordinates who are perceived to be competent and trustworthy and the subordinates will in turn be loyal, cooperative and dedicated to their work. The performance of the team is dependent on trust and cooperation among members. This is facilitated when members have shared values and identify strongly with the group (Dansereau et al., 1975).

Recent adaptations to the theory propose a more dynamic relationship and describe a ‘life cycle of a leader follower relationship, this begins tentatively at first and then either evolves into a trusting relationship or remains at the original level. The subordinates whose relationships evolve enter the in-group while those whose relationships do not evolve remain in the out-group (Landy & Conte, 2019).

Landy and Conte (2019) state that during research on this approach, leaders and subordinates often disagreed in describing the nature of the relationship; there is also lack of knowledge on how the leader and subordinate relationship develops. While it does acknowledge that differential relationships exist between leaders and followers, the theory does not provide the required detail and it cannot be considered a comprehensive theory on leadership.

### **2.6.5 Fiedler’s Contingency Model**

Fiedler (1978) developed a model that takes followers and other elements of the situation into consideration. The model predicts a leader’s effectiveness based on two factors. The first is the leader’s attributes, which refer to the task or relationship motivation orientation. The second is the leader’s situational control. The model predicts that leaders who prefer a task-motivational orientation will be more successful in high- and low-control situations when compared to leaders with a preference for relationship orientation (Fiedler, 1978).

Similarly, leaders who prefer to be relationship-orientated will be more effective in moderate control situations. A leader is considered ‘in match’ in situations where the model predicts high group performance. A leader is considered ‘out of match’ in situations where the model predicts low group performance (Fiedler, 1978).

The measures of the leader’s motivational orientation are based on the leader’s self-rating; the characteristics of the situation are measured by the leader’s report, feedback from subordinates and experimenters. The outcome of the group performance is assessed as determined by objective measures, average follower satisfaction and supervisor ratings. This model has been considered as the first model of leadership research that was designed in a multi-level analysis framework (Ayman, Chemers, & Fiedler, 1995).

The model predicts effectiveness based on the leader's attributes (style) and the leader's situational control (favourability) (Ayman, Chemers, & Fiedler, 1995). The theory posits that a leader with a task-motivational orientation is likely to be more successful in high- and low-control situations when compared with leaders who have a relationship orientation.

Therefore, leaders with a relationship focus will be more effective in moderate control situations when compared with task-orientated leaders (Ayman et al., 1995). A leader is described as in-match where the model is able to predict high group performance and out of match in situations of low group performance (Ayman et al., 1995).

## **2.7 CONTEMPORARY APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP**

### **2.7.1 Charismatic leadership**

The charismatic leadership approach is a theory with various versions (Landy & Conte, 2019). House (1977) was one of the first to conceptualise a version of charismatic leadership. He proposed the characteristics of charismatic leaders are as follows:

- They have a strong need for power.
- They are supremely confident.
- They behave in a manner that will impress subordinates, such as talking about prior accomplishments.
- They articulate a compelling vision for the future.
- They set an example of desired behaviour to their subordinates.
- They set high goals for themselves and their subordinates and instil confidence in the subordinate's ability to achieve the goals set.
- They are able to influence subordinates by understanding their unique motives and drives and appealing to these, such as the need for power, affiliation or achievement.

The attribution theory of charismatic leadership assumes that charisma is an attributional phenomenon. According to the theory, follower attribution of charismatic qualities to a leader is consistent with the leader's behaviour, expertise, and control of the situation (House, 1977).

The self-concept theory of charisma proposed a theory to explain charismatic leadership through observable processes. The theory identified traits, skills, abilities and behaviour and conditions conducive to the emergence of these. The theory was later extended by incorporating new developments in motivation and the related underlying processes. The following was theorised about human motivation:

Psychodynamic processes have also been used to explain charisma, theorists argue that the unusual influence that some charismatic leaders possess is due to the psychodynamic processes such as regression, transference and projection. Regression refers to the individual returning to feelings and behaviours of a younger age. Transference refers to the shifting of feelings associated with an important figure being shifted to someone else in the present. Projection involves shifting the blame for things about which one feels guilty to another person by attributing feelings and motives to someone else (Yukl, 2010).

According to Yukl (2010), charismatic theories also suffered from conceptual weaknesses, including ambiguous constructs, insufficient descriptions of explanatory processes, a narrow focus on dyadic leadership and lack of consideration of other relevant behaviours.

### **2.7.2 Authentic leadership**

In recent years, a new leadership approach has been discussed. The authentic leader which refers to leading with integrity, appearing as genuine and not projecting an artificial persona.

Authentic leadership development is defined as a process that involves positive psychological capacity and an organizational context that will support greater self-awareness and self-regulation in leaders (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

Yukl (2010) stated that authentic leaders are characterised by having strong, clear, stable and consistent self-concepts and self-identities. The leaders have high self-awareness about their values, beliefs and emotions, which guides their behaviour to align with their internalised values. Yukl (2010) further stated that the values of authentic leaders motivate them to do what is right and fair for their followers.



Avolio & Gardner (2005) stated that authentic leaders can be described as leaders who:

- Know who they are and what they believe in.
- Display transparency and consistency between their values, ethical reasoning and actions.
- Focus on developing positive psychological states such as confidence, optimism, hope, and resilience within themselves and their associates; and
- Are widely known and respected for their integrity.

Theories on authentic leaders tend to describe the construct in terms of a dichotomy, i.e., either an individual is an authentic leader or not, instead of being considered a continuous variable. This affects the ability to measure behaviour accurately. There is also criticism relating to the measurement of consistency between the leader's values and behaviour and the influence that will have on follower commitment. Accurate assessment of authenticity may also prove to be difficult when followers differ among themselves in values or beliefs, which could occur in a team with a diverse background (Yukl, 2010).

Furthermore, should the followers perceive the leader as not legitimate or lacking in credibility, the leader's authenticity and values will have little influence on their actions (Yukl, 2010). Followers who infer that their leaders are authentic experience a more manageable working relationship with their leaders and a stronger psychological contract.

Authentic leaders are experienced as predictable and followers spend less time trying to anticipate the leader's moves. Leaders who display commitment to core values, they are experienced as having integrity, the consistency of the behaviour results in the leader being predictable which is crucial to building trust. The impact of the leader displaying authenticity has a multiplying effect on performance (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

### 2.7.3 Neuro-leadership

The study of the brain and neuroscience and its various applications has gained popularity over recent years (Rock, 2008). Social neuroscience explores the biological foundations of how individuals behave and relate to other (Rock, 2008). The behaviour is influenced by the principle of minimising threat and maximising reward, with their brain networks linked to the ones required for primary survival needs (Rock, 2008). The SCARF model proposed by David Rock provides a framework that discusses factors that activate reward or threat response to social situations (Rock, 2008). The model can be applied in any setting where individuals collaborate, including workplaces, educational environments and social events.

The SCARF model involves five domains of human social experiences:

- Status: Refers to relative importance to others
- Certainty: Refers to ability to predict the future
- Autonomy: Refers to an individual having a sense of control over events
- Relatedness: Refers to the sense of safety with others, feeling of friendship versus acrimony
- Fairness: Refers to the perception of fair exchanges between individuals.

The five domains activate either the primary reward or primary threat circuitry in the brain; for example, a perceived threat to one's life activates the same responses than when one's status activates the threat response (Rock, 2008). Leaders are able to utilise this model to understand drivers and focus conscious attention on an otherwise unconscious process. This can assist the leader in designing interactions to minimise threats and to activate reward responses in interactions with others (Rock, 2008). The five domains, based on the work of Rock (2008), are discussed in more detail below:

#### (a) Status

Status refers to perceptions of importance or seniority. The brain perceives status using similar circuits to those for processing numbers. One's status goes up when one perceives oneself to be better than another person, as the primary reward circuit is activated. Activities that reduce threat response include

reducing the threat response when giving feedback, allowing subordinates to rate themselves on their performance instead of the manager leading the discussion. Behaviour that increases status reward includes providing learning opportunities and providing positive feedback on improvements, and public acknowledgement and focusing on the quality of work rather than the quantity of work done.

(b) Certainty

The brain seeks to predict a pattern and craves certainty. If there is a perception of incongruence in the brain, it creates an error that monopolises attention (Rock, 2008). Work-related uncertainties could be lack of clear expectations, or knowledge about job security. Behaviour that reduces uncertainty include breaking complex projects up into small steps, providing clear expectations of potential eventualities and desirable outcomes, stating objectives at the start of a meeting, confirming discussions and providing specific dates/timelines during times of change (Rock, 2008).

(c) Autonomy

An increase in the perception of autonomy produces a reward response. A reduction in autonomy in the work environment, such as micro-managing, can induce a threat response due to the feeling of a lack of agency or inability to influence or control outcomes. Behaviour that reduces the threat of autonomy include providing alternatives for how the work should be done. A reward response can be induced through increasing perceptions of autonomy, by allowing individuals to set up their own desks, organise their own workflow and manage their own working hours.

(d) Relatedness

The decision on whether an individual is a friend or foe takes place quickly in the brain and determines how an individual will behave towards another one. When treating someone as a rival or competitor, the capacity to empathise with the individual drops significantly (Rock, 2008). In the absence of a perception of safe social interactions, the body generates a threat response or feeling of loneliness. One trusts those who appear to be in one's in-group; the greater the trust the greater the collaboration and the more the information that is shared. Behaviour that reduces threats from lack of relatedness include encouraging individuals to collaborate with one another and dedicating time for work teams to socialise and interact.

Increasing the reward response includes increasing safe connections that counteract the initial threat responses to strangers, such as buddy systems, mentoring programmes and small learning groups (Rock, 2008).

(e) Fairness

Perceptions of unfairness produce a strong threat response. Unfair situations may motivate people to go to extremes to redress the perceived unfairness. Individuals who perceive another person as behaving in an unfair manner do not feel empathy for their pain; instead, they will experience a reward response when the offending party is punished (Rock, 2008). Behaviour that can reduce the pain response includes increasing transparency, the level of communication and involvement in business decisions. This entails establishing clear expectations and clear ground rules that are applied consistently.

The SCARF model provides a framework for leadership development, including building self-awareness and awareness of others. However, according to Rock (2008), there is a need for more research on the topic (Rock, 2008).

#### **2.7.4 Transformational leadership**

In recent years, TL has been a dominant leadership theory with a vast amount of research on the type of leadership (Banks, McCauley, Garnder, & Guler, 2016).

Burns (1978) first introduced the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership as part of his research on political leadership. He argues that transformational leaders offer a purpose to followers beyond short term goals and meeting intrinsic needs. In contrast, he argued that transactional leaders focused on exchange of resources. Transactional leadership is a style that is commonplace in comparison to transformational leadership.

Bass (1985) added onto the work of Burns' conceptualisation of transformational and transactional leadership with an elaboration to the theory. He argued against Burn's theory that transformational and transactional leadership were opposite ends of the spectrum, rather that the best leaders display

transformational and transactional leadership. Furthermore, he elaborated considerably on the behavioural descriptors of transformational and transactional leadership.

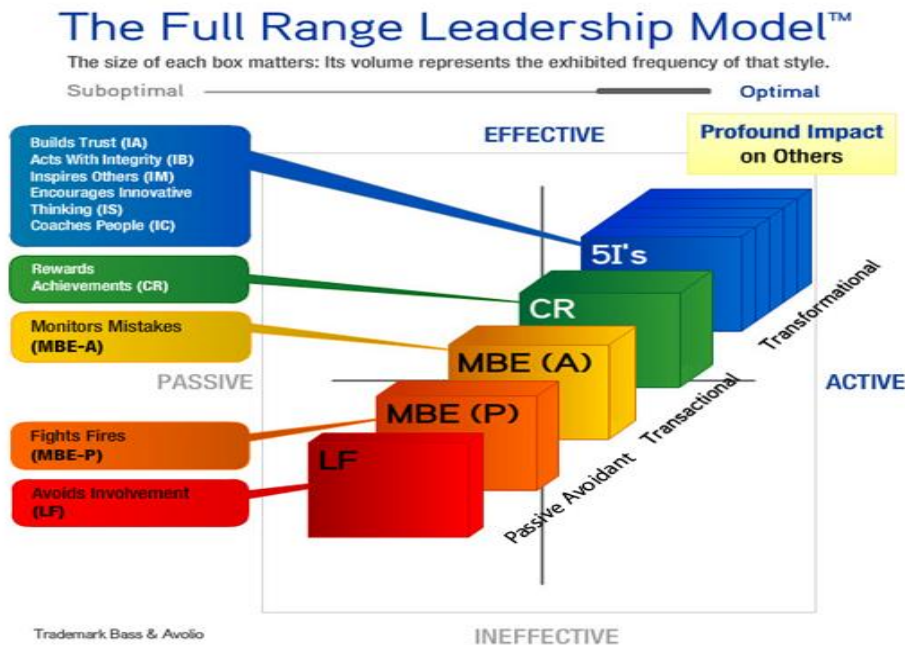
Bass (1985) started his research by interviewing managers about their experiences with transformational leaders. The data he collected from the interviews acted as a basis for the development of a questionnaire designed to measure TL, the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire.

Bass (1985) reported that the data from many organisations internationally indicate that leaders who are highly rated on TL characteristics by superiors, peers or subordinates are associated with high-performing teams (Chemers, 2000). Factor analysis of data gathered yielded seven factors, including three "transactional" factors (contingent reward, management by exception, and laissez faire leadership) that were associated with moderate to poor leadership effects and four transformational factors that were associated with high levels of subordinate motivation and group or organisational success.

The full range leadership model consists of laissez faire as well as transactional and TL behaviour (Judge & Bono, 2000). Laissez faire leadership refers to behaviour where leaders avoid accepting and carrying out any leadership and management responsibilities (Judge & Bono, 2000, 2004). See figure 2.2 below for a visual exposition of the full range leadership model.

Transactional leaders usually display behaviour associated with management by exception and contingent rewards. Management by exception can be broken down further into two categories, namely active transactional leadership, and passive transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is characterised by correcting subordinates' behaviour to reach organisational goals (Lee, Koenigsberg, Davidson, & Beto, 2010; Stanescu & Rosca, 2010).

**Figure 2.2:** The Full Range Leadership Model (Bass & Avolio, 2007)



Leaders taking the active form of management by exception focus their attention on mistakes, complaints and poor performance or rule violations and then take corrective measures (Judge & Bono, 2000; Vrba, 2007). In contrast, the leader using passive management by exception only intervenes after detecting serious mistakes (Judge & Bono, 2000, Vrba, 2007). Active management by exception is mainly concerned with putting out fires and acting in particular circumstances, which may be necessary for completing operational requirements (Judge & Bono, 2000; Vrba, 2007). Active and passive management by exception are based on reinforcement of rules and avoiding mistakes (Stanescu & Rosca, 2010).

Contingent reward leadership involves the leader assigning or obtaining follower agreement on what needs to be done by promising rewards or producing rewards (Stanescu & Rosca, 2010). Of interest, contingent reward can be considered transformational if the reward is psychological in nature, such as praise or recognition (Stanescu & Rosca, 2010).

Bass & Avolio (1993) identified the following five related behavioural characteristics as being central to TL:

- Idealised influence, which refers to the socialized charisma of the leader, based on the leaders' perceived confidence, power and whether the leader is considered ethical
- Inspirational motivation, which refers to the leaders' ability to communicate a shared vision to make change efforts worthwhile to subordinates
- Intellectual stimulation, which involves challenging and stimulating followers to go beyond self-interest in pursuit of organisational goals.
- Individual consideration, which refers to the leader's ability to coach and alleviate the concerns of subordinates, ranging from physical to psychological needs.
- Idealised attributes, which represent the highest level of TL. This involves subordinates identifying fully with the leader and is used to develop the subordinate to the benefit of the organisation. Such leaders are perceived as authentic and have a high degree of credibility among their associates.

TL has been classified as “universally effective’ leadership behaviour; however, there are some instances where the theory could be better suited to the theory of contingency leadership. Pauliene (2012) argues that the nature of the interdependent relationship between leadership styles and culture cannot be underestimated.

An example is the work of Leong (2011), where the research results indicated that Indian, Taiwanese and Chinese leaders were expected to be more transformational when dealing with the United States, New Zealand, or Canada. Of interest, Mohammed, Othman, and D'Silva (2012) found that social demographics such as race, gender, marital status, and educational level did not have an impact on TL styles.

The benefits of TL have been shown to be more readily accepted by staff when compared to transactional leadership; these leaders display high levels of management effectiveness and leadership performance, as well as being more likely to advance in organisations than leaders displaying other leadership styles (Johnsen, Eid, Pallesen, Bartone, & Nissestad, 2009; Mokgolo et al., 2012).

Research has found that TL contributes to subordinates reporting feelings of individual empowerment and group empowerment, leading to team effectiveness (Ozaralli, 2003).

In addition, TL has been shown to influence an employee's organisational commitment when leaders share a vision, support group goals and provide intellectual stimulation (Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012). It has also been shown to have an impact on the job satisfaction of employees (Hautala, 2006; Mohammad, Al-Zeaud, Mohammad, & Batayne, 2011; Mokgolo et al., 2012; Yang, 2012)

Mariano et al. (2011) found that transformational leaders promoted intrapreneurial behaviour in their followers and it has also been shown to play a vital role in organisational learning and innovation (Morales, Jimenez-Barrionuevo, & Gutierrez- Gutierrez, 2012).

In recent studies researchers found support for TL and positive correlations with corporate social responsibility (Groves & La Rocca, 2012), as well as a positive association with the perceived safety climate and participation in safety (Clarke, 2013) and follower moral identity (Zhu, Avolio, Riggio, & Sosik, 2011).

Furthermore, TL has a reinforcing effect on organisational effectiveness and acts a moderator between knowledge management and organisational effectiveness and is the most important factor in improving organisational effectiveness (Chi, Lan, & Dorjgotov, 2012).

## **2.8 PERSONALITY**

Personality can be described as an enduring and unique cluster of characteristics that may change in response to different situations (Schultz & Schultz, 2016). According to Corr and Mathews (2009), there are six personality perspectives, as set out in table 2.1 below.

### **2.8.1 The psychoanalytic perspective**

Psychoanalysis is considered the earliest approach to formal study of personality. It was influential in the development of subsequent personality theories (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).



**Table 2.2:** Theories of Personality (Adapted from Corr & Mathews, 2009, p. 60)

Perspective	Concepts	Contributors
<b>Psychoanalytic</b>	Id, ego, super ego, defence mechanisms, oedipal conflict, fixation, repression, projection	Freud (1923), Jung (1964/1971), Adler (1956),
<b>Behavioural</b>	Reinforcement, punishment, stimulus, conditioned response, discrimination learning, approach and avoidance	Skinner (1938)
<b>Social Cognitive Theory</b>	Expectancy, Self-efficacy, outcome expectation, schema, cognitive person variable, modelling, life narrative	Bandura (1965)
<b>Humanistic</b>	Self-actualization, creativity, flow, spirituality, personal responsibility, openness to experience, unconditional positive regard, acceptance, empathy, peak experiences	Rogers (1961), Maslow (1954), Csikszentmihalyi (1975), Seligman (2000)
<b>Biological</b>	Temperament, evolution, adaption, neurotransmitters, cerebral function	Eysenck (1956)
<b>Trait</b>	Trait, type, 5 model of personality, factors, facets	Allport (1931), Cattell, McCrae & Costa (1987)

#### 2.8.1.1 *Freud*

Psychodynamic perspectives are a result of Freud's theory (1923) on the unconscious mental forces evident in all individuals. Freud divided personality structure into three different components, namely the id, the ego, and the super ego. The behaviour of every individual is a result of the interaction between the components.

He proposed the notion of three layers of personality. The conscious refers to all the sensations and experiences of which an individual is aware. He considered the conscious as the tip of the iceberg in personality because only a small portion of the cognitions, sensations and memories exist at any given time. The unconscious, which he considered the bigger part of the iceberg, is invisible and comprises instincts, wishes and desires. The unconscious lies below the surface and the depths of the iceberg influence people's behaviour. The unconscious is the major driving power behind all behaviour and cannot be controlled easily. Between the unconscious and conscious there is a third layer, called the pre-conscious (Freud, 1923).

The notion of the unconscious was later revised to the concept of the id. The id refers to the instincts and the psychic energy that is manifested by the instincts. The id is a powerful structure of the personality, as it energises all the other components of the personality. The id is driven by the pleasure principle, where it seeks to increase satisfaction, immediate satisfaction, and reduction of painful stimuli. The id is not concerned with objectivity and reality and achieves its goals through reflex action (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

The next layer in his theory of personality is the ego. The ego refers to the rational master of the personality. The purpose of the ego is to temper the impulses of the id. While it does not prevent satisfaction, it delays or postpones the satisfaction of the id impulses until an appropriate social context is reached. It operates within the reality principle and manipulates the environment in accordance with the objective assessment of the situation. The ego will keep individuals in relatively unpleasant circumstances because it allows for the satisfaction of id impulses.

The superego refers to the basic moral side of personality. It operates unconsciously and is mostly dictated by beliefs and perceptions of right and wrong. The foundation for the moral side of the personality is developed by age 5 or 6 and is set by rules laid down by parental figures through praise and punishment. The behaviours that are punished form the conscience. The second part of the superego is the ego ideal, which consists of good, correct behaviour that has been praised. The result is that children learn a set of rules that they can accept or reject from their parental figures. In time children internalise the rules and parental control is replaced by self-control (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

Shame and guilt arise from breaking or contravening the internalisation of these rules and unconscious moral guidelines. Similar to the impulses of the id, the superego is uncompromising in its goal to achieve moral perfection. It may drive intense and irrational behaviour in its insistence on obedience. The superego will attempt to suppress the instinctive urges of the id completely in its attempt to achieve moral perfection. The ego is caught in the middle of the opposing forces, namely the id, superego, and reality. The result of excessive friction between the forces is the development of anxiety (Schultz & Schultz, 2016). Anxiety is the signalling of a threat to the ego and must be avoided or counteracted. Defences are always in operation owing to the ever-present threat to the ego to deal with the anxiety. Freud proposed several defence mechanisms that can be used by individuals to defend them from anxiety

(Shultz & Shultz, 2016). The defence mechanisms are denials or distortion of reality that operate unconsciously.

- Repression: refers to the unconscious denial of the existence of a stimulus that causes anxiety
- Denial: refers to the denial of the existence of an external threat or traumatic event
- Reaction formation: refers to the expression of an id impulse that is the opposite of the one truly driving the person.
- Projection: refers to attributing a disturbing impulse to someone else
- Regression: refers to retreating to an earlier, less frustrating period of life and displaying child-like and dependent behaviour characteristic of that more secure time in life
- Rationalisation: Involves reinterpreting behaviour to make it more acceptable and less threatening
- Displacement: refers to the shifting id impulses from a threatening or unavailable object to a substitute object that is available
- Sublimation: refers to the altering or displacing id impulses by diverting instinctual energy into socially acceptable behaviour

The notion of unconscious forces is well established and validated through such research as that on subliminal perception. The concept of the ego has also been supported by researchers through concepts such as ego control and ego resiliency, with their foundations influenced by Freud's concept of the ego. Defence mechanisms proposed by Freud have also been supported by research. A hierarchy of the defence mechanisms has been proposed, with the simpler ones being used earlier in life and the more complex ones showing prominence as individuals age (Shultz & Shultz, 2016).

Researchers have argued that Freud placed too much emphasis on instinct and biological forces in the development of personality. His focus on sex and aggression as a major motivating factor has also been criticised. His work has been criticised as well for its emphasis on past behaviour to the exclusion of individuals' goals and aspirations. His research sample was skewed by individuals displaying maladaptive behaviour; the study of 'healthy' positive human qualities was consequently limited. His

views on women in relation to men have also been criticised as negative and prejudicial. Lastly, to date there is uncertainty about the nature of the id, ego, and superego as structures of the brain or fluid processes (Shultz & Shultz, 2016).

The legacy of Freud's theories is complex, while aspects of the theories have stood the test of time, there is criticism around the obscurity of the writing and empirical work (Westen, 2008).

#### **2.8.1.2        *Jung's analytical psychology***

Carl Jung was a student of Freud, however he disagreed with him on the role of sexuality, the forces that shape personality and placing greater emphasis on the unconscious. He created his own theory, called the analytical personality theory (Jung, 1964). In analytical theory, personality comprises several distinct structures that influence one another. The major systems are the ego, the personal unconscious and the collective unconscious (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

The ego refers to the part of the psyche that is concerned with perceiving, thinking, feeling and remembering. These perceptions are required for the day-to-day functioning of individuals.

Conscious perception and interaction with the environment are influenced by the opposing attitudes of extraversion and introversion. Jung believed that psychic energy can be channelled either externally towards the outside world or internally towards the self. Extraverts are open, socially assertive, orientated towards other people and the external world. Introverts are withdrawn, shy and often focus on themselves and their own thoughts and feelings. Individuals are able to display the non-dominant behaviour; however, it may become part of the personal unconscious where it can affect behaviour (Shultz & Schultz, 2016).

Extraverted and introverted individuals can present differently based on their psychological functions. These refer to the different or opposing ways of perceiving or apprehending the external and internal world. The four psychological functions are sensing, intuiting, thinking and feeling (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

Sensing reproduces an experience through the senses in the way a photograph captures an image. Intuiting does not arise directly from an external stimulus but is rather based on an intuition or hunch than on a sensory experience.

The second pair of opposing functions are thinking and feeling. These are rational functions that influence the judgements and evaluations of experiences. Both involve organising and categorising experiences. The thinking function involves a conscious judgement of whether an experience is true or false. The feeling function is expressed in terms of like or dislike, pleasantness or unpleasantness.

Jung (1971) originally published in German in 1921, proposed eight psychological types based on the interaction of two attitudes and four functions:

- Extraverted thinking: These individuals tend to live in strict accordance with society's rules. They prefer to be objective in all aspects of life, may repress their feelings and emotions and may be perceived as rigid and cold. They tend to make good scientists because of their focus on learning and applying logical rules.
- Extraverted feeling: These individuals tend to be highly emotional and repress the thinking mode. They tend to conform to traditional values and moral codes that they have been taught. They are emotionally responsive, sensitive and make friends easily.
- Extraverted sensing: These individuals focus on pleasure, happiness and seeking new experiences. They tend to be strongly orientated towards the real world and are adaptable to varying situations. They tend to be outgoing, with a high capacity for enjoying life.
- Extraverted intuitive: These individuals tend to find success in business and politics because of their ability to exploit opportunities. They are attracted to new ideas and tend to be creative. They tend to make decisions based on a hunch rather than reflection and move quickly from one venture into another. They also display the ability to motivate and inspire others.

- Introverted thinking: These individuals tend to focus on thought rather than on feelings and may have limited practical judgement. They are intensely concerned with privacy and prefer to deal with abstract concepts and theories rather than understanding people. They may be perceived as stubborn, aloof, arrogant and inconsiderate.
- Introverted feeling: These individuals are capable of deep emotion but avoid the outward expression of the emotion. They tend to be inaccessible, quiet. They may have little consideration for others' feelings and thoughts and come across as cold.
- Introverted sensing: These individuals appear passive, calm and detached from the everyday world. They tend to be aesthetically sensitive and expresses themselves in music or art.
- Introverted intuitive: These individuals tend to focus on intuition to such an extent that they have little contact with reality. These people are typically visionaries and daydreamers. They may be perceived as aloof, unconcerned with practical matters and poorly understood by others. They are considered odd and have difficulty coping with everyday life and planning for the future.

Jung also discussed the personal unconscious, which refers to the memories, stimuli and cognitions that were once conscious but have been suppressed because they were trivial or disturbing. All kinds of experiences are stored in the personal unconscious; it is easily accessible for the mind to access and return these (Shultz & Shultz, 2016).

Middle age brings about personality changes. This is a natural time of transition during which the personality undergoes beneficial changes. This usually takes the form of exploring different interests and activities. The attitude of the personality shifts from the extraverted to the introverted with focus on the inner, subjective world. Energies generally move from the physical to the spiritual, philosophical and intuitive. The results of the integration of the conscious and the unconscious is individualisation, which is characterised by a new level of positive psychological health (Schulz & Schultz, 2016).

Jung made contributions to psychology; the concepts of psychological complexes and of being introverted versus extraverted are widely accepted and used (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

#### **2.8.1.3      *Adler's individual psychology***

Adler's individual psychology (1956) focused on the uniqueness of each individual. He argued that each individual is primarily a social being and personalities are shaped by unique social experiences, environments and interactions. Adler also proposed that the conscious rather than the unconscious is the core of personality. Rather than being driven by unconscious forces, individuals are actively involved in creating themselves and directing their future.

Adler believed that feelings of inferiority are always present as a motivating force in behaviour. He proposed that feelings of inferiority are the source of all human striving; individual growth is a motivation by compensation, which is the attempt to overcome real or imagined inferiorities (Adler, 1956).

The process begins from infancy, with the child striving in response to the greater power and strength of the parents; the feeling of inferiority provides the motivation to grow (Adler, 1956).

An inferiority complex arises from an individual's inability to overcome feelings of inferiority. Individuals with an inferiority complex have a poor opinion of themselves and feel helpless in determining the course of their lives. The inferiority complex can arise from three sources, namely organic inferiority, spoiling and neglect. Individuals with biologically weak bodies may focus on that weakness and work to develop superior abilities to overcome it (Adler, 1956).

In the case of spoiling, a pampered child is the centre of attention at home, with its every whim indulged. These children naturally develop the idea that they are very important, and all activities should centre on them. Once they enter the school environment and see that they are not the centre of attention, they may be unprepared for the lack of attention and not have developed the necessary skills to cope in the social context. When confronted with setbacks or obstacles to goals, they believe they must have some personal deficiency that is affecting them (Adler, 1956).

A superiority complex refers to individuals overcompensating and developing an exaggerated opinion of their abilities and accomplishments. Such individuals may feel inwardly self-satisfied and superior and therefore have no need to demonstrate their superiority. Alternatively, the individuals may feel they need to work to become extremely successful. These individuals are likely to be boastful and self-centred and to belittle others (Adler, 1956).

Of interest, Adler believed that striving for superiority increases rather than decreases tension. Striving for superiority occurs at an individual level as well on a society level. Individuals and society are interrelated and interdependent; individuals must operate constructively for the good of all (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

The manner in which each individual expresses the drive for perfection varies. A sickly child may strive to increase physical prowess by increasing athletic abilities. These behaviours become part of the style of life that compensates for the inferiority. The style of life is learned from social interactions that occur in early life. The style of life becomes the guiding framework for all subsequent behaviour (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

Neglected children may also develop an inferiority complex, feeling they are unable to cope with the demands of life. They may be hostile and distrustful, and their style of life may be characterised by seeking revenge, resenting the success of others and taking what they feel the world owes them (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

Adler's method for collecting data to inform his theory has been criticised for lack of scientific rigour. Researchers have consequently struggled to duplicate his research methodology and validate his results. There has, however, been research on the theories that he proposed. His theory that dreams assist in solving current problems has been researched, with support for the theory that individuals typically dream about the problems that they face (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

Research has indicated that the early memories of individuals diagnosed with anxiety disorders were concerned with fear; those diagnosed with depression reported early memories of abandonment and those suffering from psychosomatic disorders had a history of illness. Early memories of alcoholics concerned a threatening environment versus those who did not have a substance abuse problem.



Furthermore, individuals engaging in criminal behaviour reported early disturbing or aggressive interactions with people. Research using objective scoring indicated that the early recollections were subjective recreations rather than events that actually occurred. These were, however, close enough to support Adler's theory of the development of a style of life (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

Critics have argued that he may have been inconsistent and unsystematic in his theory, leaving gaps and unanswered questions. There is uncertainty on the concept of inferiority and the drive for perfection and the subsequent style of life.

Adler, a Psychologist who studied under Freud, ventured from Freud's theory and proposed that human striving for superiority is a universal drive to adapt, improve and master the challenges of life (Weiten, 2017).

Each individual works hard to overcome feelings of inferiority developed by the feeling of weakness and helplessness experienced in early childhood. This is done through a process called 'compensation'. Compensation involves efforts to overcome imagined or real inferiorities by developing one's ability. Individuals with severe inferiorities are described as suffering from an inferiority complex, where they experience exaggerated feelings of weakness and inadequacy stemming from their early development and parental relationships. Personality disturbances arise from overcompensation behaviour, which is a result of feelings of inferiority. Despite the popularity of psychodynamic theories, these have been criticised for lack of empirical evidence, poor testability and in the case of Freud (Weiten, 2017).

### **2.8.2 The behavioural perspective**

Skinner (1938) was concerned about understanding the human response to environmental or social stimuli. He adopted an experimental approach to understand behavioural responses. Skinner argued that reinforcement is the basis of behaviour. His idea was that behaviour can be controlled based on the consequences of the behaviour. Individuals can be trained to behave in a certain way based on the reinforcement of certain behaviours; whoever controls the reinforcers has the power to control human behaviour (Skinner, 1938).

He distinguished between two types of behaviour, respondent and operant behaviour. Respondent behaviour refers to a response caused by a specific stimulus. This behaviour is unlearned and occurs automatically (Skinner, 1938).

Respondent behaviour refers to responses to stimuli that has been learned. The learning process is referred to as conditioning. The classic experiment by Pavlov provided the theoretical foundation for reinforcement behaviour. These behaviours can be unlearned, and this is referred to as extinction (Skinner, 1938).

He argued that operant behaviour is evident in everyday life; not all behaviour is a result of an operant response. The frequency of the operant response is dependent on the reinforcement that follows the behaviour (Skinner, 1938).

He did acknowledge that everyday life does not reinforce behaviour every time it occurs. He proposed that there are reinforcement schedules that can be used to determine the effectiveness of controlling behaviour.

He investigated the following:

- Fixed interval reinforcement: This refers to the reinforcer being presented following the first response that occurs after a fixed time has lapsed, i.e., payment of salary on a particular day. He did observe that the shorter the interval between the behaviour and the presentation of the reinforcer, the greater the frequency of response. The response rate declines as the interval between the behaviour and the presentation of the reinforcer increases.
- Fixed-ratio schedule reinforcement: This refers to the reinforcers only being given after a specific number of responses.

According to Skinner, an individual's personality or characteristic responses are shaped by reinforcers and other consequences that follow behaviour. He referred to this as determinism, where the individual's

behaviour is determined by environmental stimuli through positive and negative reinforcement (Skinner, 1938).

His work has been proven to have wide practical application. His theories have been applied in therapeutic and clinical settings to treat a variety of disorders, including psychoses, mental retardation and autism. His behaviour modification procedure has been used beyond clinical settings in schools, businesses, correctional institutions and hospitals (Corr & Matthews, 2009).

Despite the contribution of behavioural theories, there is some criticism, namely overdependence on animal research used to generalise human behaviour, the dehumanising nature of radical behaviourism and failure to provide a unifying structure to explain personality (Weiten, 2017).

### **2.8.3 The social cognitive perspective**

Bandura (1965), a behavioural psychologist, rejected Skinner's highly deterministic view that behaviour is determined by the environment. He rather argued that internal mental events, the external environment and overt behaviour all influence one another. He called this process reciprocal determinism; this suggests that individuals are neither master of their destiny nor beholden to external forces.

The social cognitive theory of personality seeks to elucidate the process of personality trait development. Some insights are suggested as follows:

When describing themselves, individuals mention a myriad of descriptions, including important relationships, social roles, goals, motives, preferences, values and rules (Bandura, 1965). Furthermore, individuals may rate their traits in relation to different role contexts, i.e., in relation to the school context or work context (Bandura, 1965).

Social psychologists have found that individuals are likely to confirm self-views or select environments (occupations, neighbourhoods) that confirm their self-concepts (Corr & Matthews, 2009).

## **2.8.4 The humanistic perspective**

Humanism is the theoretical orientation that emphasises the unique qualities of humans, especially their freedom and their potential growth. Humanistic theorists take an optimistic view of humans, specifically that humans can rise above their primitive urges and that people are largely conscious and rational beings. Humanists argue that a person's subjective view of the world is more important than objective reality. The phenomenological approach assumes that one has to appreciate the individual's personal, subjective experiences to truly understand behaviour (Weiten, 2017).

### **2.8.4.1 *Roger's person-centred theory***

Carl Rogers is well known for his client-centred approach (1961), later termed person-centred theory. His theory is rooted in humanistic personality, which he used as a framework in his relationships with his clients. He developed his theory by working with his clients, therefore his structure and dynamics on personality originate from his interactions with his clients. In his view, it is the client or person, not the therapist, who directs the conversation and the change and the therapist's role is to facilitate the change (Rogers, 1961).

He did not place much emphasis on the unconscious forces of the psychoanalytical theories; rather he proposed that individuals are rational beings ruled by conscious perceptions of self and world. He also rejected the notion that past events exert a controlling influence on present behaviour past the influence of how the world is viewed. According to him, current feelings and emotions have a greater impact on personality. He suggested that personality can only be viewed from the perspective of the client, in line with subjective experiences (Rogers, 1961).

The personality is driven by the motivation for individuals to actualise, i.e., to become a 'fully functioning person'. This drive towards actualisation is part of the larger actualisation tendency encompasses all physiological and psychological needs. Satisfaction of the basic requirements, such as a need for food, safety and water, will lead to the attainment of higher levels (Rogers, 1961).

The actualisation tendency begins at birth and continues for the rest of an individual's life. The progress towards full human development requires struggle and pain; however, the tendency to actualise is stronger than the struggle and pain. The orgasmic valuing process is used to evaluate all life experiences

by how well they serve the actualisation tendency. Experiences that individuals perceive as promoting actualisation are evaluated as desirable and assigned a positive value. Experiences that individuals perceive as inhibiting the process are regarded as undesirable and have a negative value (Rogers, 1961).

Rogers (1961) viewed the experiential world as providing a context that influences an individual's growth. This provides a frame of reference for an individual's growth, whether trivial, significant, threatening or rewarding. Individuals' perception of the environment forms the subjective experiences that they use to develop themselves. Rogers referred to this as phenomenology, where the only reality that an individual can be sure of is his or her own subjective experience.

As the self emerges, infants develop a need for what is called positive regard. The need for positive regard is universal and persistent. It includes acceptance, love and approval from other people.

Positive self-regard is crucial to personality development. The child is guided by the amount of affection and love that it receives. If the child is not offered this, the tendency toward actualisation and development of the self-concept will be hampered in the infant (Rogers, 1961).

He believed that the only way to assess someone's personality is through subjective experiences. He did this through a technique called the 'person-centred theory'. He argued that clients themselves had the ability to examine the roots of their problems and to understand how their growth may have been impeded through the incongruence of their self-concept and their experiences (Rogers, 1961).

The method involves the therapist exploring the client's feelings and attitudes to the self and to other people. The therapist is to listen without preconceptions trying to understand the client's experiential world. The focus is on conscious subjective experiences; experiences that are not conscious remain hidden. Moreover, what the therapist learns from the client's experiences depends on the ability of the client to communicate. The evaluation of experiences does not depend on the theoretical structure.

Clients are accepted as they are, and the therapist provides them with unconditional positive regard and offers no judgment or advice. The client is personally responsible for changing behaviour and re-evaluating relationships (Rogers, 1961).

Several studies provided support for the theory that incongruence between perceived self and ideal self indicates poor emotional adjustment. The greater the discrepancy, the higher the anxiety, insecurity, self-

doubt, depression, social incompetence and other psychological disorders. High inconsistency between the perceived self and the ideal self correlates with low levels of self-actualisation and self-esteem. (Shultz & Schultz, 2016).

Despite the popularity of the person-centred therapeutic approach, it has been criticised for its failure to explain Rogers's theory (1961) on the potential for actualisation exactly. He is also criticised for not acknowledging unconscious influences that could be affecting his clients' behaviour (Shultz & Shultz, 2016).

#### **2.8.4.2        *Csikszentmihalyi's autotelic personality***

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) proposed the concept of an autotelic personality, which he referred to as a disposition to seek challenge and flow experiences. The state of flow is described as a state of intrinsic motivation or joy experienced when an individual is fully engaged and immersed in a particular activity, purely for the sake of the activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). An individual who is experiencing flow typically experiences a high level of concentration, merging of action and awareness, loss of self-consciousness and loss of time.

Individuals possessing autotelic personalities tend to seek flow experiences and place themselves in situations that encourage the possibility of flow experiences (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). In the process autotelic personalities simultaneously show pure curiosity, the need to achieve, enjoyment in the task, openness to new experiences and a high level of focus (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). The autotelic personality is a combination of receptive (openness) and active qualities (engagement and persistence in task). Csikszentmihalyi (1997) coined the term 'disinterested interest', which refers to a focus on task-inherent incentives and motivation to master the task.

The relationship between receptive and active qualities produces a powerful autotelic combination that leads to tension, which is ideal for personality development and the evolvment of complex individuals. This process gives autotelic individuals the advantage of developing their talents to the fullest extent (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997).

#### **2.8.4.5      *Seligman's happy personality theory***

Seligman (2002) conceptualised the research on the 'Happy personality' when considered in relation to other personality theories, has found that individuals with low scores on neuroticism and high scores on extraversion and conscientiousness tend to report high levels of subjective well-being.

In addition, they found that individuals who reported experiencing high levels of happiness had strong social relationships. Although social relationships did not cause happiness, it was unlikely to achieve a happy life without rich and satisfying social relationships (Seligman, 2000).

An individual's subjective wellbeing can influence how the person is perceived by others. Subjective well-being refers to the cognitive evaluation of how they experience their life at present. Depending on how they have evaluated their life, this can lead to positive effects on personality. Factors such as money, age, gender, marital status, job satisfaction and level of education, socioeconomic status, social identity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and internal locus of control may influence subjective wellbeing (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

#### **2.8.5      The biological perspective**

The biological perspective studies the relationship between hereditary factors and personality traits (Eysenck, 1956).

Eysenck, a German-born British psychologist, viewed personality structure as a hierarchy of traits. In his model a few higher-order traits, such as extraversion and introversion, determine a host of lower order traits that determine habitual responses (Eysenck 1956). He refers to three 'superfactors', namely extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism, which are similar to the Big Five, with psychoticism referring to an equal blend of low conscientiousness and low agreeableness. This biologically driven theory relies on the functions of the brain's reticular activating system. Eysenck associated extraversion with the reticulo-cortical circuit and neuroticism with the reticulo-limbic circuit. He hypothesised that extraverts have a higher threshold for cortical arousal than introverts and as such choose more stimulating activities to satisfy their need for arousal (Eysenck 1956).

He further hypothesised that individuals who are neurotic are more easily aroused by emotion-inducing stimuli in comparison to individuals who are emotionally stable. While he did not specify the biological factors related to psychotism, he hypothesised that psychoticism was negatively associated with the serotonergic function and positively associated with the dopaminergic function (Eysenck, 1956).

He further proposed that introverted individuals were relatively easy to condition, while extraverts were relatively more challenging to condition. This theory, however, was later disproved through his own research and the research of others (Eysenck, 1956).

Despite research into hereditary personality traits, there is still no comprehensive biological theory of personality. Moreover, the results of heredity studies in personality indicate difficulty in removing the nurture aspects that have not been successfully separated (Weiten, 2017).

## **2.8.6 The trait perspective**

According to Schultz and Schultz (2016), a trait is a distinguishing personal characteristic or quality of an individual. Corr and Mathews (2009) distinguished between the following trait approaches to personality:

### **2.8.6.1 *Allport's theory***

In 1937, Allport published a book titled 'Personality: A psychological interpretation'. It would help to bring personality into the mainstream. In his theory traits played a prominent role, rather than the psychoanalytical views accepted by Freud and his followers. He argued that emotionally healthy individuals' function in a rational manner and can consciously influence their behaviour. The unconscious is only beneficial to the study of unhealthy individuals. Allport also negated the influence of the past on individuals' current behaviour. He believed that individuals are influenced by their current circumstances rather than by past conflicts. Lastly, he made a distinction between emotionally healthy individuals and the emotionally unstable. He did not consider mental health as a continuum, but rather a dichotomy. Studies of the two groups should be separated clearly (Allport, 1937).

His research proposed that personality comprised a 'dynamic organisation' within an individual, psychophysical systems that determine the behaviour and thought of an individual. As such each



individual is a unique collection of hereditary and environmental influences. An individual is shaped by the interaction of innate or genetic endowment and the social environment. The personality of the individual must be studied based on the individual case rather than on the averages of a large group (Allport, 1937).

He proposed eight criteria that could be used to define a trait and to state the logic and some of the evidence to support the concept in the field of psychology (Allport, 1937):

- A trait has an existence similar to a habit of a complex order. This means that the mechanisms that produce habits such as integration could form part of the process of producing traits of personality.
- A trait is more generalised than a habit; a personality could comprise a number of independent habits and interdependent habits.
- A trait determines how an individual is likely to respond to a stimulus. Once formed the trait directs the response of the individual that forms the characteristics of the individual.
- The existence of a trait may be established through empirical and statistical methods. In order to establish a habit, the person needs to display repeated reactions consistently to determine the habit. Similarly, in order to know that an individual has a trait, it is necessary to have evidence of repeated reactions. The existence of the trait can be established with the aid of statistical techniques to confirm the degree of coherence through the separate responses.
- Traits can be interrelated and are only relatively independent. The overlap of traits could be due to the fact that individuals tend to react in an integrated fashion. Therefore, in the observation or testing of the behaviour, more than a single trait could be reflected, as several traits may converge into a final common path.

- A trait of personality cannot be equated to a moral quality, in that a trait of personality may or may not coincide with a social concept and should be considered independent of moral significance.
- Acts and habits that are inconsistent with a trait being measured are not proof that that trait does not exist. All individuals cannot be expected to display the same degree of integration in a particular trait, therefore what is a minor trait in one individual could be a major trait in another individual. Secondly, there may be contradictory traits in a single personality, although the strength may be unequal. Thirdly, there may be instances that produce stimulus responses that are unrelated to existent traits, owing to the attitude of that moment.
- A trait can be viewed in terms of the personality that contains it and in terms of its distribution among the population at large. Each trait is unique and can be applied universally. However, there may be relatively few traits that are universal enough to be scaled in the population at large, whereas there may be a single personality with numerous traits that can be distinguished (Allport, 1937).

Allport (1937) argued that the unique self-comprised a *proprium*; this refers to the aspects of personality that are distinctive to each individual and are appropriate for his or her emotional life. These aspects are unique to each individual and unite attitudes, perceptions and individual intentions.

The *proprium* is developed over seven stages from infancy to adulthood. The first three stages in development span the years from birth to age 4. The infant is aware of bodily development, which involves the child being aware of its body; this is referred to as 'bodily me'. The next stage involves the child experiencing a sense of self-identity, where it becomes aware of the continuity of its identity and sees itself as distinct from other people. The child develops a sense of self-esteem when it discovers that it can accomplish tasks on its own. This provides the motivation to explore and have experiences that will develop one's sense of self. If the child's need to explore is frustrated, the child may experience feelings of humiliation and anger, which will affect self-esteem (Allport, 1937).

The next step is the extension of self. This refers to growing awareness of the environment around them and their relationship with objects and people. The self-image develops next, which involves how they would like to see themselves. The ideal self-image is influenced by the interaction they have with their parents, based on the expectations that the child strives to meet (Allport, 1937).

The next stage refers to the self as a rational. At this stage children learn to apply logic and reason to situations and to solve everyday problems. The next stage is when children enter adolescence. At this stage they begin to formulate their life goals and plans for the future; if they fail at this stage the *proprium* will remain incomplete. Should the relationship with the primary caregiver not allow for the development of the *proprium*, the child will develop into an insecure, aggressive, demanding, jealous and self-centred adult. The personality traits do not develop, and the personality remains undifferentiated. If the relationship between the child and adult is positive and allows for the development of the *proprium*, the child is likely to develop into a mature and emotionally healthy adult (Allport, 1937).

A healthy adult personality is able to evolve from being biologically dominated in infancy to a mature psychological organism in adulthood. Allport (1937) was concerned with the healthy functioning of the normal and mature personality. He formulated six criteria to describe the ideal adult personality:

- Mature adults extend their sense of self beyond the self to people and activities beyond the self.
- The mature adult is able to relate warmly to other people, displaying appropriate levels of intimacy, compassion and tolerance.
- Mature adults are able to accept themselves and have a sense of emotional security.
- Mature adults hold a realistic perspective on life and are able to develop themselves personally and professionally.
- The mature adult has insight into themselves and a healthy sense of humour.
- The mature adult is able to act in a self-directed manner to future goals.

Although little research has resulted from Allport's (1937) theory of the *proprium* or the self, his work on the uniqueness of individuals and the importance of goals has been reflected in the work of humanistic

psychologists Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow. His enduring influence on psychology in terms of understanding trait development has made a major contribution to the field of personality psychology (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

#### **2.8.6.2        *Cattell***

The work of Cattell (1947) was heavily influenced by Allport's (1937) work on personality. Cattell's (1947) goal was studying personality to determine how an individual would behave in a given situation in order to predict behaviour. The scope of his research did not extend to the modification of behaviour. He was also not engaged in understanding abnormal psychology with the aim of treating deviations.

His approach was to study personality in healthy individuals through scientific observation of individuals and evaluation of scientific data. His approach differed from that of his predecessors; he introduced a procedure called factor analysis, which statistically assessed the relationship between a possible pair of measurements taken from a group of participants to identify common factors. Using this approach, two sets of data about a person can be combined to form a single dimension, with one factor describing the information provided from both data sets (Cattell, 1947).

He would later refer to these factors as traits, which he described as mental elements of personality. Once the traits were identified, he proposed that he could then predict how an individual would behave in a particular situation. He explained the trait as the permanent reaction to tendencies that are the basic structural unit of personality (Cattell, 1947).

He distinguished between what he termed common traits and unique traits. Common traits refer to the ones that are common among all individuals. Unique traits refer to those that are shared by only a few people. He also distinguished between ability traits, which refer to the traits that determine how efficiently an individual can work towards a goal such as intelligence, and discussed temperament traits, which refer to the general style and emotional tone of people's behaviour. Lastly, he proposed the concept of dynamic traits, which are the driving force of behaviour and define motivations, interests and ambitions (Cattell, 1947).

He discussed surface traits and source traits. Source traits refer to the factors that remain stable and permanent in response to most stimuli. These are identified during the factor analytic process. Surface traits refer to the personality characteristics that may correlate with another trait; however, do not constitute a factor and cannot be determined by a single source. They also tend to be comparatively less stable and permanent (Cattell, 1947).

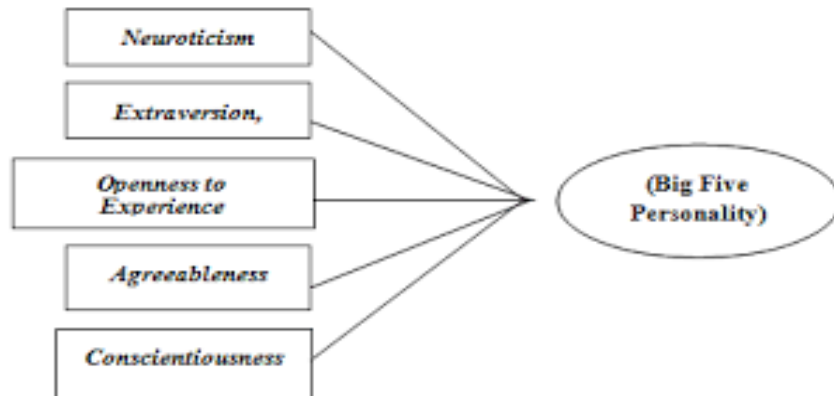
His research culminated in the identification of 16 source traits, which he proposed as the basic factors of personality. The traits are presented in bipolar form and described in everyday language. He proposed that personality development took place in six stages, spanning the entire lifetime.

He argued that the major formative stage of personality is between infancy and 6 years. During these years the influence of siblings and parents influence the social attitudes as well as the ego and super ego. Feelings of security and insecurity, attitudes to authority and neurotic tendencies are involved. Between 6 and 14, the childhood personality is developed, the child learns independence from parents and increases identification with peers. The next stage is characterised by adolescent challenges such as the drive for independence, delinquency and self-assertion. The fourth stage spans from 23 and 50 and is characterised by maturity; it is a phase that is generally characterised by development of a career, marriage and starting a family. The personality may be less flexible than in earlier stages; however, the emotional stability increases (Cattell, 1947). The fifth stage, from 50 to 65, involves the personality developing in response to physical, social and psychological changes. Individuals may re-evaluate their lives and values and search for a 'new self'. The final stage is old age, which involves adjustments to losses of spouses, relatives, friends, youth and career. It may also be characterised by a sense of loneliness and insecurity (Cattell, 1947)

Some critics have argued that his method of factor analysis is vulnerable to influences of subjectivity. At several stages in the research process, decisions need to be made that could be influenced by personal preferences. While the criticism does not diminish the theoretical foundations for his study, it may suggest why other researchers have difficulty in replicating his research and confirming his 16 traits (Schultz & Schultz, 2016).

### 2.8.6.3 *The Big Five Factor Model of personality*

**Figure 2.3:** The Big Five Personality Factors (Adapted from McCrae & Costa, 1987)



Following the research of Eysenck (1956) and Cattell (1947), McCrae and Costa (1987) embarked on an extensive research programme that identified five big factors of personality. These factors are:

- Neuroticism.
- Extraversion.
- Openness.
- Agreeableness.
- Conscientiousness.

They confirmed the factors through self-ratings, objective tests and observation. The researchers then developed a personality test, namely the NEO Personality Inventory. The factors were confirmed using a variety of methods and they can consequently be relied upon to distinguish aspects of personality.

There are similarities between the extraversion and neuroticism factors of McCrae and Costa and those parts of Eysenck's theory. Furthermore, agreeableness and conscientiousness as described in Costa and Mcrae's model resemble Eysenck's psychotism dimension. Furthermore, openness shows a high positive correlation with intelligence.

The Big Five Factor Model of personality has been said to originate from a compilation of terms in the 1925 unabridged edition of the Webster's New International Dictionary. Descriptors were devised to apply to the definition of a trait as generalised and personalised determining tendencies. These were

described as consistent and stable modes of individual adjustment to behaviour. The research came up with a primary list of trait names (Block, 1995).

Cattell took over from the work started by Allport and Odbert. He believed in the lexical hypothesis and added terms reflecting personality, i.e., introversion/extroversion, emotional maturity etc. The addition of psychological insights was to signal a departure from the work done by Allport and Odbert. Cattell then sought to abbreviate and reduce the terms through factor analysis, resulting in 12 primary factors (Block, 1995).

Tupes and Christal (1961) have subsequently been hailed for the discovery of the Big Five dimensions. They further analysed the factors of Cattell through studies conducted in the military (Block, 1995). To date, the Five Factor Model of personality can be considered the dominant paradigm in personality research and one of the most influential models in psychological research (Corr & Matthews, 2009). The model has gained acclaim owing to its applicability to different contexts and its utility in providing a structure according to which most personality traits can be classified (Corr & Matthews, 2009).

The model suggests that there are five major domains of personality:

- Neuroticism versus emotional stability (negative affectivity).
- Extraversion versus introversion (positive affectivity).
- Conscientiousness.
- Agreeableness versus antagonism.
- Openness versus being closed to experiences (unconventionalality, Intellect) (Widiger & Trull, 1997).

The Five Factor Model of personality differentiates itself from other theories of personality by not being based on a theory of personality development. The lexical Five Factor Model of personality rather seeks to provide a thorough description of personality. The model is derived from empirical and systematic analysis of data.

The model is widely accepted across the various fields of psychology, from industrial/organisational psychology to psychopathology, health psychology and educational psychology.

Despite the evidence of the universality of the Big Five Factor Model of personality traits from structured inventories, lexical studies conducted in different languages have found less support for its universality (Hill et al., 2013).

Although personality traits have been assumed to be stable and permanent, longitudinal and cross-sectional research has identified some gradual changes in the average length of the traits. Specifically, individuals generally decline in neuroticism and extraversion and increase in agreeableness and conscientiousness. Openness to experience increases until the mid-twenties, after which where it may decline slowly (Corr & Matthews, 2009).

Gender differences have also been reported; women scored higher on neuroticism and agreeableness than men. At the level of a specific facet, there were differences within domains. Warmth and assertiveness are traits of extraversion; however, men are more assertive, and women are reported as having more warmth. Men are more open to aesthetic experience and women more open to ideas (Corr & Matthews, 2009).

Research has confirmed that neuroticism is generally associated with most personality disorders. Individuals displaying openness to experience are more open to social and political liberalism, low agreeableness is a risk factor for substance abuse and conscientiousness is associated with good job performance.

The study of the Five Factor Model of personality has been replicated in many societies; however, these populations have been urban populations where the population is largely literate. In a study conducted in Bolivia, evidence of the Five Factor Model of personality among the Tsime of Bolivia was weak; internal reliability was generally below the levels found in developed countries. Furthermore, the Five Factor Model did not cleanly emerge in any exploratory or confirmatory factor analyses (Gurven, Von Rueden, Massenkoff, Kaplan, & Vie, 2012).



In South Africa, a notable example is the concept of Ubuntu. Ubuntu refers to a collectivist trait of behaving in a generous, hospitable, caring and compassionate manner (Laher, 2013). The concept centres on the notion that ‘A person is only a person through others’. In order to subscribe to the notion of Ubuntu, there are certain behaviours that have to be consistent, namely social relatedness, peace, harmony, respect for others and obedience to adults, parents, seniors and authority universally (Laher, 2013). Given the origins of the FFM in the English lexicon, it is not surprising that a concept like Ubuntu would have not been considered in understanding traits.

According to the Five Factor Model of personality the same five factors are universal across all individuals. Recent studies have indicated that individuals with below-average levels of cognitive complexity display personalities that are best described by a three-factor model and individuals with above-average levels of cognitive complexity display personalities that are best described by a six-factor model (Bowler, Bowler, & Cope, 2012).

The big five traits are broad personality constructs that are manifested in more specific traits.

Factor 1: Extraversion represents the tendency to be outgoing, assertive, and active and excitement-seeking. Individuals scoring high on extraversion are strongly predisposed to experiencing positive emotions (Judge & Bono 2000; Judge et al., 2002).

Factor 2: Agreeableness consists of tendencies to be kind, gentle, trusting, trustworthy and warm (Judge & Bono 2000; Judge et al., 2002).

Factor 3: Conscientiousness is indicated by two major facets: achievement and dependability. Conscientiousness is the trait from the Five Factor Model that correlates best with job performance (Judge & Bono 2000; Judge et al., 2002.).

Factor 4: Emotional adjustment is often labelled by its opposite, neuroticism, which is the tendency to be anxious, fearful, depressed and moody (Judge & Bono 2000; Judge et al., 2002.).

Emotional adjustment is the principal Big Five trait that has been shown to lead to life satisfaction and freedom from depression and other mental ailments (Judge & Bono, 2004).

Finally, Factor 5: Openness to experience (sometimes labelled intellectance) represents the tendency to be creative, imaginative, perceptive, and thoughtful. Openness to experience is the only Big Five trait to display significant correlations with intelligence (Judge & Bono 2000; Judge et al., 2002).

The Five Factor Model has been criticised by social psychologists because of the factors describing behaviour rather than explaining behaviour (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Other personality theorists have acknowledged the contribution that the theory has made to describing traits. It does not constitute a full theory of personality, as it does not explain human development and the day-to-day functioning/social interactions of individuals (Corr & Matthews, 2009).

Other criticism relates to the structure of the model. Some researchers have argued that more or fewer than five factors are necessary (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Still other researchers have argued that completely new factors are needed. Chinese researchers have argued that a new factor is required, originally named ‘Chinese tradition’, as well as changes to ‘interpersonal relatedness’, as it is also found in non-Chinese samples. However, subsequent research found that ‘interpersonal relatedness’ has been redistributed among A and C factors using the NEO-FFI.

To date, the trait theory of personality has achieved notable successes that have advanced the understanding of personality (Corr & Matthews, 2009). There are still concerns about how psychologists know whether traits are the right way to describe differences in personality. There are some criticisms that can be addressed through reviewing the phenotype, studying of psychometric properties, longitudinal and cross-cultural studies (Corr & Matthews, 2009).

## **2.9 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TL AND THE FIVE FACTOR MODEL OF PERSONALITY**

Research has shown that personality has an impact on an individual’s behaviour, and that there is a potential link between personality and leadership behaviour (Deinert, Homan, Boer, Voelpel, & Guterman, 2015). Regarding the Big Five personality traits, Judge and Bono (2000) found that extraversion and agreeableness positively predicted TL, while openness to experience was positively correlated with TL. However, the traits of neuroticism and conscientiousness were unrelated to TL.

In a follow-up meta-analysis studying the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL, Bono and Judge (2004) found that all Big Five personality factors were related to all the dimensions of TL; extraversion was the strongest correlate of TL.

In another meta-analysis of research into the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL, Deinert et al. (2015) found that all Big Five personality traits were directly linked to the sub-dimensions of TL and an overall measure of TL. However, it was found that different combinations of the personality factors were differentially related to the TL dimensions. For example, inspirational motivation was related to all the Big Five personality factors, while only openness to experience and agreeableness affected individualised consideration (Deinert et al., 2015).

Although the relationship between TL and the Big Five personality traits has received attention from numerous authors (De Hoog et al., 2005; Deinert et al., 2015; Judge & Bono, 2000; Shao & Webber, 2006; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012), results have not always led to clear conclusions (Bono & Judge, 2004).

The study of the Five Factor Model of personality and TL has resulted in promising results, with correlations found between leadership characteristics and personality traits (Judge & Bono, 2004).

When the traits were applied to TL, Judge and Bono (2000) found that extraversion and agreeableness predicted TL and openness to experience correlated positively with TL. However, its effect disappeared once the other traits were controlled. Lastly, neuroticism and conscientiousness were unrelated to TL.

In a later study, Judge and Bono (2004) found that extraversion was the strongest and most consistent correlate of TL. However, they found weak associations and suggested future research on narrower personality traits.

In contrast, Shao and Webber (2006) found that the personality traits positively associated with TL behaviour in the North American context are not evident in the Chinese environment, providing further evidence of the contextual approach that could be taken in the study of leadership.

Felte and Schyns (2010) suggested that raters, i.e., employees of leaders, vary in their assessment of leaders owing to their individual characteristics and the environment. They further argue that followers similar to transformational leaders are likely to form transformational relationships and are consequently likely to view their managers as transformational leaders.

Recently Bono, Hooper, and Yoon (2012) found that rater personality (agreeableness, openness, extraversion and conscientiousness) was positively associated with ratings of TL. In addition, they suggested that disagreements among raters about leaders' behaviours were not due solely to random error and might instead reflect true differences in either (a) the behaviour leaders exhibit toward individual followers or (b) personality-related differences between followers in attention to and recall of leadership behaviour.

Nielson and Daniels (2012) suggested that TL needs to be studied as a group phenomenon. Group-level perceptions may have an impact on followers' well-being and leaders need to be cognisant of the group as a whole in their interactions.

Zopiatis and Constanti (2012) indicated that while TL is positively associated with extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness, no association with agreeableness and neuroticism was found. This finding was contrary to what Judge and Bono (2004) reported. In addition, they found that the personality trait that best predicts a preference for a particular leadership style is conscientiousness. The results of their study indicated that individuals who are highly conscientious and diligent are likely to adopt a TL style.

Cavazotte, Moreno, & Hickman (2012) confirm the impact of conscientiousness on TL and leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, neuroticism is confirmed as having a negative effect on leadership effectiveness. These observations differ from those of previous studies (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge et al., 2004), which found that conscientiousness was seen to play a role in TL emergence; extraversion and openness to experience were also observed as strong correlates. Conscientiousness was not seen as a strong factor in TL by Judge and Bono.

In light of the Five Factor Model's utility in identifying TL, it is pertinent to study the relationship between the two variables in varying contexts. In their research on personality traits and TL, Zopiatis

and Constanti (2012) suggested further research of other cultural groups with a large sample size to add to the existing knowledge on the relationship between the two variables.

## **2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the concepts of TL and personality were discussed. The concepts were defined, and the main theories of leadership and personality were discussed. The chapter started with a definition of leadership and then discussed the main theories of leadership, which included the trait, behavioural, contingency and contemporary theories. Thereafter, the different personality perspectives were discussed, including the Five Factor Model of personality. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the relationship between TL and the Five Factor Model of personality.

In the next chapter the empirical study will be discussed.

### **CHAPTER 3: ARTICLE**

*(This article is compiled according to the guidelines of the South African Journal of Industrial Psychology (SAJIP) regarding a journal article and will be submitted to the SAJIP for publication on acceptance of this dissertation)*

#### **The Relationship between Personality and Transformational Leadership in the Retail industry**

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**Orientation:**

There is abundant research on the positive effects of transformational leadership (TL), but a paucity of research on the relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors in the South African retail industry context.

**Research purpose:** The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors in a retail organisation in South Africa.

**Motivation for the study:**

The new world of work is characterised by urgency for agility, growing complexity and a need for innovation. Research suggests that leaders play an integral role in the competitiveness of organisations in the global economy. TL has been shown to be an effective leadership style to improve various organisational outcomes, but not much is known about the relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors in the retail context. Such knowledge could assist in utilising the Big Five personality factors to select and develop potential transformational leaders to improve organisational outcomes.

**Research design, approach and method:**

The study utilized a quantitative research approach in which a purposeful sample of 101 leaders in a retail organisation in South Africa was assessed on TL and the Big Five personality factors, using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the Fifteen Factor Plus Personality Questionnaire. Correlation analysis was conducted to determine the statistical relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors.

**Main findings:**

Findings indicated that only one Big Five personality factor, namely emotional stability (anxiety), had a statistically significant relationship with a composite TL measure and all five TL sub-dimensions at the  $p < 0.01$  level, while the Big Five personality factors were able to explain only 28.9% of the variance of a composite TL measure.

**Practical/managerial implications:**

Research suggests that the new world of work would benefit from having leaders who display TL behaviour. This study provides valuable information for organisations that contemplate using the Big Five personality factors to identify transformational leaders.

**Contribution or value add:**

This research contributes to research on the relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors in a retail context in South Africa.

**Keywords:** Transformational leadership, Big Five personality factors, leadership, personality, retail industry

## INTRODUCTION

The new economy is characterised by globalisation, which leads to increased competition and change, compelling organisations to be innovative and proactive in order to remain competitive (Moriano, Molero, Topa, & Mangin, 2011). These challenges are also faced by the retail industry in the South Africa, which is characterised by changes in technology, shifts in consumer behaviour, saturated markets, growing complexity and increased competition (Van der Westuizen & Kok, 2006). The South African retail industry is the largest in Sub-Saharan Africa and the 20th largest in the global retail market (Fouche & Wilkinson, 2012). The retail industry contributes 13.4% to the South African gross domestic product (GDP) and together with the wholesale and trade industry is the biggest employer in the country, with 3.18 million workers (Sewell, Mason, & Venter, 2014).

As the retail industry is highly labour-intensive, it requires effective leadership at all levels. Research suggests that leaders have a major impact on the competitiveness and success of organisations in the global economy (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Nawaz & Bodla, 2010). The increased demands on organisations to be more flexible, adaptable and competitive have consequently increased the requirement for effective leadership, especially regarding the ability to motivate and inspire employees to achieve stated visions (Daft, 2018). An approach to leadership that has received increased attention over the years is transformational leadership (TL) (Daft, 2018; Riggio, Chaleff, & Lipman-Blumen, 2008; Walumba, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008). According to Garcia-Morales, Jimenez-Barrionuevo, and Gutierrez-Gutierrez (2012), TL played a vital role in organisational learning and organisational innovation, thus influencing the overall performance of an organisation. Furthermore, significant relationships between TL and job satisfaction (Mohamad, Al-Zeaud, Mohammad, & Batayne, 2011; Mokgolo, Mokgolo, & Modiba, 2012) and between TL and the intrapreneurial behaviour of followers have been shown to exist (Moriano, Molero, Topa, & Mangin, 2011). There is also evidence supporting the validity of TL across many different cultures (Judge & Bono, 2000).

According to Gregory (2013), personality is defined as stable, unique and consistent traits exhibited by all individuals in their behaviour. One approach to personality that has proved its utility in identifying leadership characteristics has been the Big Five personality factors (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005; Judge, & Bono, 2004; Thalmayer, Saucier, & Eigenhuis, 2011), which have been found to correlate with TL (Judge & Bono, 2000). Research by Judge (2004) and Derue, Nahrgang Wellman,



and Humphrey (2011) also found that effective leaders tend to score higher on certain Big Five personality factors than ineffective leaders.

In the South African context, there is a scarcity of research in the retail industry regarding TL and the Big Five personality factors. Given the importance of the retail industry for the national economy in South Africa, research investigating leadership and personality is important. Furthermore, in a study by Zopiatis and Constanti (2012) in the hotel industry, which found positive relationships between TL and extraversion, openness to experience and conscientiousness, it was recommended that the relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors be investigated in other organisational contexts.

## **RESEARCH OBJECTIVE**

The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors in a South African retail organisation.

## **WHAT WILL FOLLOW**

The article starts with a review of relevant literature regarding TL and the Big Five personality factors. The literature review will be followed by the research methodology, after which the results of the study will be discussed. The article will end with limitations, recommendations for future research, practical implications for management and conclusions.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Transformational Leadership**

TL has been a dominant leadership theory with a vast amount of research on the topic (Banks, McCauley, Garnder, & Guler, 2016). The theory attracts research owing to the relevance and impact on organisational productivity (Ng, 2016), having evolved from Burns's (1978) conceptualisation of TL to the revisions proposed by Bass (1985) regarding TL as part of a full-range leadership theory. There is sound empirical evidence supporting TL as an effective leadership style (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), and it has proved to be relevant in the modern world of work, which is characterised by uncertainty and complexity (Lim & Ployhart, 2004). The theory of TL is based on leaders meeting the higher-order needs

of their followers, resulting in higher performance, and these positive effects extend beyond the individual and show utility at the team and organisational levels as well (Searle & Burbuto, 2013).

The TL approach is characterised by four empirically derived factors, namely idealised influence (behaviours and attitudes), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Banks et al., 2016). *Idealised influence* refers to the leader being idealised by the team members. The leader is able to wield power and influence over the team members. The team members aim to emulate the behaviour of their leader and identify with their mission. The leader inspires the team members to accomplish ambitious tasks by exerting extra personal effort (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The leader is also socially aware, is experienced as charismatic and perceived as behaving in an ethical manner (Nawaz & Bodla, 2010; Judge, & Bono, 2000). Idealised attributes represent the highest level of TL (Vrba, 2007), involving subordinates identifying fully with the leader, and this is used to develop the subordinate's performance to the benefit of the organisation. Such leaders are perceived as authentic and have a high degree of credibility among their associates (Vrba, 2007). *Inspirational motivation* refers to the leader's ability to articulate a shared vision, inspire commitment to shared goals, common understanding and mutual understanding of accepted behaviour (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Such leaders inspire others to work towards the greater good of the group, their unit or organisation and exert extra effort to achieve shared goals (Nawaz & Bodla, 2010; Judge, & Bono, 2000). *Intellectual stimulation* involves the leader encouraging team members to think about new ways of approaching a problem, encouraging them to question their own beliefs, assumptions and values. In the process the leader encourages the team members to challenge or question them on how they solve problems (Avolio & Bass, 2004). *Individualised consideration* means understanding and sharing in others' concerns and developmental needs and treating each individual uniquely. In addition, individualised consideration represents an attempt on the part of leaders not only to recognise and satisfy their associates' current needs, but also to expand and elevate those needs to maximise and develop people's full potential (Nawaz & Bodla, 2010; Judge & Bono, 2010).

Research has found that TL contributes to subordinates reporting feelings of individual empowerment and group empowerment, leading to team effectiveness (Ozaralli, 2003). In addition, TL has been shown to influence employees' organisational commitment when leaders share a vision, support group goals and provide intellectual stimulation (Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012).

García-Morales et al. (2012) found that TL plays a vital role in organisational learning and organisational innovation. They found that TL, through organisational learning and innovation, influenced the overall performance of the organisation. Furthermore, significant relationships between the four dimensions of TL and job satisfaction for their employees have been found (Hautala, 2005, Mohamad, Al-Zeaud, Mohammad & Batayne, 2011; Mokgolo et al., 2012). Mariano et al. (2011) also found that transformational leaders promote intrapreneurial behaviour in their followers.

Transformational leaders have also been shown to be more readily accepted by their staff and display high levels of management effectiveness and leadership performance, as well as being more likely to advance in organisations than leaders displaying other leadership styles (Johnsen, Eid, Pallesen, Bartone, & Nissestad, 2009; Mokgolo et al., 2012). Evidence has supported the validity of TL across many different cultures, using a variety of methods (Judge, & Bono, 2000). Research has also indicated that TL is positively related to job performance, citizenship behaviour and innovative behaviour (Ng, 2016).

### **The Big Five personality factors**

Personality is defined as stable, unique and consistent traits exhibited by all individuals in their behaviour (Gregory, 2013). One model of personality that has proved its utility in identifying leadership characteristics has been the Five Factor Model of personality (Judge & Bono, 2004). Tupes and Christal (1961) are commonly credited with identifying the Big Five personality factors, though their discovery was born from a re-analysis of data collected much earlier by Raymond Cattell (1946, as cited in Judge & Bono, 2000). All Big Five factors of personality are thought to encompass several correlated but distinct lower-level dimensions or traits (Judge & Bono, 2000).

The communality of the specific lower-order traits defines each of the Big Five factors. The five factors are found consistently through different research methods across time, contexts and cultures (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005; McCormack & Mellor 2002; Thalmayer, Saucier, & Eigenhuis, 2011). The Big Five traits are broad personality constructs that are manifested in more specific lower-order traits. These factors are described in more detail below:

Factor 1: Extraversion represents the tendency to be outgoing, assertive, active and excitement-seeking. Individuals scoring high on extraversion are strongly predisposed to experience positive emotions (Judge & Bono 2000; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). The converse of extraversion is introversion, which

refers to individuals who tend to focus on their inner world of thoughts, perceptions and experiences. Individuals scoring high on introversion do not require social contact or external stimulation (Psytech, 2000).

Factor 2: Agreeableness consists of tendencies to be cooperative, kind, gentle, trusting and warm (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002). The converse of agreeableness is independence. Individuals who score high on independence tend to make decisions based on their own thoughts and beliefs. They may be experienced as strong-willed and confrontational (Psytech, 2000).

Factor 3: Conscientiousness, which is also labelled self-control, is a measure of reliability. Such a person is responsible, organised, dependable and reliable (Judge & Bono 2000; Judge et al., 2002.). The converse of conscientiousness is low self-control. Individuals who score low on conscientiousness tend to exhibit low levels of restraint and they are not influenced by social norms (Psytech, 2000).

Factor 4: Emotional stability is often labelled by its opposite, neuroticism, which is the tendency to be anxious, fearful, depressed and moody. Emotional stability measures a person's ability to withstand stress, and such a person tends to be calm, self-confident and secure (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002.).

Finally, Factor 5: Openness to experience, represents the tendency to be creative, imaginative, perceptive, and thoughtful. Openness to experience is the only Big Five trait to display significant correlations with intelligence (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002). The converse to openness to experience is pragmatism. Individuals scoring high on pragmatism tend to be influenced by hard facts and may be experienced as unreceptive to new ideas/possibilities (Psytech, 2000).

### **The relationship between TL and the Big Five personality factors**

Research has shown that personality has an impact on an individual's behaviour, and that there is a potential link between personality and leadership behaviour (Deinert, Homan, Boer, Voelpel, & Gutermann, 2015). Regarding the Big Five personality traits, Judge and Bono (2000) found that extraversion and agreeableness positively predicted TL, while openness to experience was positively correlated with TL. However, the traits of neuroticism and conscientiousness were unrelated to TL.

In a follow-up meta-analysis studying the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL, Bono and Judge (2004) found that all Big Five personality factors were related to all the dimensions of TL; extraversion was the strongest correlate of TL.

Although the relationship between TL and the Big Five personality traits has received attention from numerous authors (De Hoog et al., 2005; Deinert et al., 2015; Judge & Bono, 2000; Shao & Webber, 2006; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012), results have not always led to clear conclusions (Bono & Judge, 2004). The purpose of the current study is to thus to add to the existing body of knowledge regarding this relationship, in a South African context. From the literature review the following research hypotheses are formulated:

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a statistically significant relationship between TL and its sub-dimensions and the Big Five personality factors.

**Hypothesis 2:** The Big Five personality factors are a statistically significant predictor of a composite TL measure.

## **RESEARCH DESIGN**

### **Research approach**

In this research a quantitative cross-sectional study was undertaken. A quantitative study is characterised by an objective, systematic process in which numerical data is used to obtain information about the research topic and provides a snapshot of variables included in the study from the sample (Creswell, 2014). This approach allowed the collection of primary data from a representative sample of the population by means of a survey questionnaire.

## **RESEARCH METHOD**

### **Research setting**

The study took place in a retail organisation in one of the provinces in South Africa. This organisation retails clothing, footwear, accessories, homewares and sporting goods across numerous brands. The retailer has outlets across all nine provinces in South Africa.

### Research participants and sampling

The population for this study consisted of approximately 800 employees in leadership positions who worked in the retail organisation in one province in South Africa. A purposive sample of 101 employees occupying leadership positions across various departments in the organisation was identified, and these leaders had at least one subordinate reporting to them. The sample consisted of different racial groups, genders, ages and years of experience as leaders in the organisation. Purposive sampling was used, as the leaders were invited to participate in the study. This allowed for a sample that could be logically assumed to be representative of the population (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). Table 3.1 below shows the characteristics of the sample.

**Table 3.1:** Characteristics of the research sample (n = 101)

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Race	Black	50	49.5
	White	19	18.8
	Coloured	19	18.8
	Asian	11	10.9
	Did not disclose	2	2.0
	Total	101	100
Gender	Female	56	55.5
	Male	43	42.5
	Did not disclose	2	2.0
	Total	101	100
Age	< 20 years old	0	0
	20 – 30 years old	39	38.7
	31 – 40 years old	50	49.5
	41 – 50 years old	12	11.8
	> 50 years old	0	0
	Total	101	100
Years of experience as leaders	1 – 2 years	28	27.7
	3 – 5 years	20	19.8
	6 – 10 years	41	40.6
	> 10 years	9	8.9

Did not disclose	3	3.0
Total	101	100

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Table 3.1 indicates that two participants did not indicate their race; the majority of the sample (50.5%) was made up of blacks, followed by 19.9% whites, 19.9% coloureds and 11.1% Asians. Previously whites had dominated managerial positions in the organisation, which has changed to blacks now being the dominant group. These results are in line with South African government legislation, which compels the employment of previously disadvantaged groups in organisations [Employment Equity Act, 1998 (Act No 55 of 1998)].

Regarding gender, most of the participants were female (56.6%) while 43.4% were male. Previously males dominated managerial positions, but females are now the dominant group. Two participants did not disclose their gender.

Table 3.1 indicated that the ages of the participants ranged from a minimum of 26 years to a maximum of 49 years, while the mean age was 36 years. Almost half of the participants were younger than 35 years, making this a relatively young sample. Regarding experience as a leader, three of the participants did not disclose their experience, while nearly half (47.5 %) of the sample had less than six years of experience, making this a relatively inexperienced leadership sample.

## **Measuring instruments**

### **Biographical Questionnaire**

The biographical questionnaire at the beginning of the online Fifteen Factor Plus Personality Questionnaire (15Q+) questionnaire was used to gather information relating to the participants' race, gender, age and years of experience as leaders.

### **The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire**

In this study TL was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X, which consists of 45 items that measure five dimensions of TL, namely idealised attributes, idealised behaviours, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration, and produced a composite TL score (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Items were rated on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently if not always). The questionnaire included items such as 'The person I am

rating talks optimistically about the future' (inspirational motivation) and 'The person I am rating re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate' (intellectual stimulation). Bass and Riggio (2006) reported acceptable levels of internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha above 0.80 for all the scales of the MLQ 5X.

### *The Fifteen Factor Plus Questionnaire*

In this study the Big Five personality factors were measured with the 15FQ+, which represents a revision and update of the 15FQ questionnaire first published by Psytech in 1992. The 15FQ was developed as an alternative to the 16PF® series of tests, measuring the personality dimensions that were first identified by Cattell in 1946 (15FQ+ Technical Manual).

The instrument has 200 items with 12 items per scale, measuring 16 primary personality factors. Second-order factors, which constitute the Big Five personality factors, are calculated using scores from some of the 16 primary factors. These second-order or Big Five personality factors are extraversion, anxiety (also referred to as emotional stability), openness to experience, agreeableness and self-control (also referred to as conscientiousness) (Psytech, 2000). The questionnaire consists of single-statement items that require responses on a three-point Likert scale, which are represented as A (true), B (undecided) or C (false), to produce raw scores for each primary personality factor. The raw scores obtained on each factor are converted to standardised sten scores, which have a range of 1 to 10, a mean of 5.5 and a standard deviation of 2 (Psytech, 2000).

The 15FQ+ has been proven valid and reliable for use in South African environments and has norms developed for South Africa (Psytech, 2000). In terms of reliability, Cronbach's alpha for a professional sample on the standard form ranged from 0.77 to 0.83 for the 16 traits and the Big Five personality factors. Similarly, test-retest reliabilities varied from 0.77 to 0.89 (Psytech, 2000).

According to Meiring, Van der Vijver, and Rothmann, (2006), there are some concerns around about the internal consistency of the questionnaire when compared to the original version and internal consistency remains low for black African participants. In addition to this, Moyo and Theron (2011), in their study on the 15FQ+ adaptation for the South African context found that the model parameters generally do not reflect the latent personality measures with a great deal of precision.



The Big Five personality factors were measured by the 15FQ+, which uses a three-point Likert scale to produce raw scores. These raw scores are then converted to standardized sten scores, which have a range of 1 to 10, a mean of 5.5 and a standard deviation of 2. Sten scores of 5 or 6 are average, while scores of 4 or 7 are respectively slightly below or slightly above average. Scores of 8, 9 and 10 can be considered too high, very high and extremely high respectively, while scores of 1, 2 and 3 would be extremely low, very low and low (Psytech, 2000).

### **Research procedure and ethical considerations**

Permission to involve employees of the organisation in this study was granted by the organisation's human resources director and the heads of the relevant participating business units. Thereafter ethical clearance for the study was obtained from the Ethics Research Committee of the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa. After approval had been received, the research commenced.

In collaboration with the human resource consultant in the various business units, the researcher identified a purposeful sample of 101 leaders working at head office and in the regional offices. The potential participants were contacted via telephone or email, the nature and purpose of the research were explained, and their participation was requested. All identified leaders agreed to participate in the research. They were provided with a written informed consent form, which they were requested to complete and return to the researcher.

The identified leaders were requested to complete an MLQ and a 15FQ+ assessment for themselves. The leaders had the option of completing the questionnaire using paper and pencil or completing an online questionnaire. Electronic responses were captured on a secure server, while the completed hard copies were collected from each leader at a place and time agreed upon. All questionnaire scores were captured on an Excel spreadsheet and made available to the statistician for further statistical analysis. Confidentiality and anonymity were ensured by coding all responses to the questionnaires.

### **STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA**

Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 (IMB, 2015). Descriptive statistics were used to calculate the mean, standard deviation and frequency of responses of

the leaders. Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability of the two measuring instruments. The relationship between TL and its dimensions and the Big Five personality factors was determined by using Pearson's correlation coefficients and standard multiple regression analysis was used to determine the degree to which the Big Five personality factors could predict TL and its dimensions. The cut-off point that determines a statistical significance was set at  $p \leq 0.05$  (Creswell, 2014).

## RESULTS

### Descriptive statistics for the MLQ

The descriptive statistics for the MLQ are presented in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2:** Descriptive Statistics for the MLQ (n = 101)

TL dimension	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Idealised attributes (IA)	3.6676	.45807	2.14	4.00
Idealised behaviour (IB)	3.6331	.49802	2.22	4.00
Inspirational motivation (IM)	3.6716	.44685	2.27	4.00
Intellectual stimulation (IS)	3.6032	.51289	2.38	4.00
Individualised consideration (IC)	3.6234	.50558	2.13	4.00
Composite TL score	3.6398	.47814	2.23	4.00

Table 3.2 indicates that leaders were rated to show TL behaviour as very high, with all dimensions and the composite TL core above 3.6 or above 90%. This suggests that they applied TL behaviour in their work environment frequently.

### Descriptive statistics for the 15FQ+

The descriptive statistics for the 15FQ+ are presented in Table 3.3. Results indicate that leaders rated themselves slightly below average on extraversion, with a mean sten score of 4.8. Results also indicate that leaders rated themselves as average on emotional stability (mean sten score of 5.6), average on openness to experience (mean sten score of 5.05), average on agreeableness (mean sten score of 5.17) and slightly below average on self-control (mean sten score of 4).

**Table 3.3:** Descriptive Statistics for the 15FQ+ (n = 101)

Big five personality factor	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Extraversion	4.80	2.498	1.00	9.00
Emotional stability	5.60	1.563	3.00	9.00
Openness to experience	5.05	2.500	1.00	10.00
Agreeableness	5.17	1.822	1.00	9.00
Conscientiousness	4.55	2.076	1.00	8.00

## RELIABILITY OF MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

### Reliability of the MLQ

The internal consistency of the MLQ was determined by using Cronbach's alpha. According to Salkind (2017), internal consistency examined how unified the items are in a test or assessment. A high Cronbach value signifies that the items are measuring the underlying (or latent) construct. Revelle and Zinbarg (2009) provided the following rules of thumb, where reliability is:  $\geq .9$  = excellent,  $\geq .8$  = good,  $\geq .7$  = acceptable,  $\geq .6$  = questionable,  $\geq .5$  = poor, and  $< .5$  = unacceptable. According to Hair, Babin, Black, and Anderson (2014), the lower limit is .7 and it may decrease to .6 in exploratory research. In this research, .7 was used as an acceptable level of internal consistency. The reliability statistics obtained for the MLQ in this study are given in Table 3.4.

**Table 3.4:** Reliability Statistics for the MLQ (n = 101)

Dimension	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha	Acceptable level
Idealised attributes	4	.966	Excellent
Idealised behaviours	4	.973	Excellent
Inspirational motivation	4	.966	Excellent
Intellectual stimulation	4	.974	Excellent
Individual consideration	4	.966	Excellent
Composite TL score	20	.993	Excellent
Total	45	.993	Excellent

The results indicate that all dimensions measured by the MLQ produced high internal reliability statistics, ranging from a low of .966 for idealised attributes, inspirational motivation and individual consideration, to a high of .933 for the composite TL score. According to Revelle and Zinbarg (2009),

these reliabilities can be classified as excellent; the MLQ can therefore be considered reliable for this study and statistics obtained from it can be used for further analysis.

### **Reliability of the 15FQ+**

The internal consistency of the 15FQ+ was determined by using Cronbach's alpha. According to Salkind (2017), internal consistency examines how unified the items are in a test or assessment. A high Cronbach value signifies that the items are measuring the underlying (or latent) construct. Revelle and Zinbarg (2009) provided the following rules of thumb, where reliability is:  $\geq .9$  = excellent,  $\geq .8$  = good,  $\geq .7$  = acceptable,  $\geq .6$  = questionable,  $\geq .5$  = poor, and  $< .5$  = unacceptable. According to Hair, Babin, Black, and Anderson (2014), the lower limit is .7 and it may decrease to .6 in exploratory research. In this research, .7 was used as an acceptable level. The reliability statistics obtained for the 15FQ+ in this study are given in Table 3.5.

**Table 3.5:** Reliability Statistics for the 15FQ+ (n = 101)

Dimension	Cronbach's alpha	Acceptable levels
Extraversion	.060	Satisfactory
Emotional stability	.003	Poor
Openness to experience	.223	Poor
Agreeableness	.194	Poor
Conscientiousness	-.475	Poor
Total	-.077	Poor

Results indicate that the 15FQ+ yielded extremely low internal consistency scores. The results indicate that with the exception of extraversion (.60), the other four personality factors measured by the 15FQ+ produced very low internal reliability statistics, with two negative Cronbach alphas. According to Revelle and Zinbarg (2009), these reliabilities can be classified as poor and the 15FQ+ was regarded as statistically unreliable for this study. However, statistics obtained from it were used for further analysis.

## CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Table 3.6 indicates the intercorrelations between the five TL dimensions, the composite TL score and the Big Five personality factors.

**Table 3.6:** Intercorrelations between TL and the Big Five Personality Factors (n = 101)

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. IA	1	.973**	.979**	.945**	.965**	.984**	-.167	.553**	.067	.173	-.011
2. IB	.973**	1	.981**	.975**	.973**	.993**	-.147	.539**	.091	.191	.000
3. IM	.979**	.981**	1	.960**	.976**	.991**	-.182	.551**	.094	.196*	.017
4. IS	.945**	.975**	.960**	1	.959**	.981**	-.138	.551**	.092	.191	-.013
5. IC	.965**	.973**	.976**	.959**	1	.987**	-.164	.550**	.084	.200*	.007
6. Comp TL	.984**	.993**	.991**	.981**	.987**	1	-.161	.556**	.087	.193	.000
7. Ex	-.167	-.147	-.182	-.138	-.164	-.161	1	-.194	.631**	-.078	-.438**
8. ES	.553**	.539**	.551**	.551**	.550**	.556**	-.194	1	.189	.217*	-.178
9. O to E	.067	.091	.094	.092	.084	.087	.631**	.189	1	.066	-.599**
10. Agree	.173	.191	.196*	.191	.200*	.193	-.078	.217*	.066	1	.216*
11. Consc	-.011	.000	.017	-.013	.007	.000	-.438**	-.178	-.599**	.216*	1

IA = Idealised attributes

IB = Idealised behaviour

IM = Inspirational motivation

IS = Intellectual stimulation

IC = Individualised consideration

Comp TL = Composite TL score

Ex = Extraversion

ES = Emotional stability

O to E = Openness to experience

Agree = Agreeableness

Consc = Conscientiousness

\* p < .05 statistically significant

\*\* p < .01 statistically highly significant

<sup>a</sup>r > .3 statistically significant (medium effect)

<sup>b</sup>r > 0.5 statistically significant (large effect)

Table 3.6 indicated that there are no statistically significant relationships between three of the Big Five personality factors, namely extraversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness, and any of the TL dimensions or the composite TL score. There are two statistically significant relationships between one Big Five personality factor, namely agreeableness, and two TL dimensions, namely inspirational motivation (.196; p < .05), and individualised consideration (.200; p < .05). Only one Big Five personality factor, namely emotional stability (anxiety), is statistically significantly related to all the TL dimensions as well as the composite TL score, ranging from a low of .539 (p < .01) for idealised behaviour to a high of .556 (p < .01) for the composite TL score.

## Regression analysis

Table 3.7 indicates the results of a multiple regression analysis with the Big Five personality factors as the independent variables and a composite TL score as the dependent variable. A multiple regression analysis was conducted in order to determine whether the Big Five personality factors could predict a composite TL score (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). Adjusted  $R^2$  was used to determine what portion of the total variance of the composite TL score is explained by the Big Five personality factors (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 3.7 indicates that 28.9% of the variance of a composite TL score is explained by the Big Five personality factors ( $F_{(5,95)} = 9.124$ ;  $p < .001$ , Adjusted  $R^2 = .289$ ). This is a poor model, since the amount of variability explained is below 50% (Hair et al., 2014). Only one of the Big Five personality factors, namely emotional stability (anxiety), made a statistically unique contribution to predicting the composite TL score ( $\beta = .539$ ;  $p < .001$ ). None of the other four factors made a statistically significant contribution to the variability of the composite TL score, with extraversion having a small statistically insignificant negative influence on the variance.

Table 3.7: Multiple regression analysis with the dimensions of the Big Five personality factors as the independent variables and a composite TL score as the dependent variable

Table 3.7 indicates that 28.9% of the variance of a Composite TL Score is explained by the Big Five personality factors ( $F_{(x;y)} = 9.124$ ;  $p < .001$ , Adjusted  $R^2 = .289$ ). This is a poor model since the amount of variability explained is below 50% (Hair et al., 2014). Only one of the Big Five personality factors, namely Anxiety, made a statistically unique contribution to predicting the Composite TL Score ( $\beta = .539$ ;  $p < .001$ ). None of the other four factors made a statistically significant contribution to the variability of the Composite TL Score, with Extraversion having a small statistically insignificant negative influence on the variance.

**Table 3.7:** Multiple Regression Analysis with the Dimensions of the Big Five Personality Factors as the Independent Variables and a Composite TL Score as the Dependent Variable

	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients Beta	T	Sig	F	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>
	B	SE							
(Constant)	2.509	.274		9.162**	p<.001	9.124	.570	.324	.289
Extraversion	-.011	.023	-.058	-.481	.632				
Emotional stability	.165	.030	.539	5.536**	p<.001				
Openness	.017	.025	.087	.658	.512				
Agreeableness	.011	.024	.041	.447	.656				
Conscientiousness	.026	.026	.114	1.003	.318				

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$

## DISCUSSION

The aim of the study was to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL. This was achieved by computing descriptive and reliability statistics for the two self-reporting measuring instruments, which leaders completed for themselves and (subordinate, peer and leader) rating regarding their TL behaviour and Big Five personality factors, and by computing correlations between the dimensions of the two instruments. Descriptive statistics indicated that the majority of leaders indicated that they applied TL behaviour in their work environment frequently, if not always.

Descriptive statistics also indicated that leaders regarded themselves as below average on extraversion and conscientiousness, and average on emotional stability, openness to experience and agreeableness. High internal reliability statistics were obtained for the MLQ, which was used to measure TL, but low internal reliability statistics were obtained for the 15FQ+, which was used to measure the Big Five

personality factors. Furthermore, the sample of the research was predominantly black Africans, and this could have affected the results of the research.

The validity of administering the 15FQ+ to black Africans has been researched with varying results, with researchers suggesting that organisations should use the instrument with caution (Moyo & Theron, 2011). This is consistent with earlier research by Meiring et al. (2006), who found low internal consistency levels when the 15FQ+ questionnaire was administered to black individuals. This may have influenced the mostly insignificant relationships obtained between the Big Five personality factors and TL in this study.

The statistically insignificant negative relationships found between extraversion and a composite TL measure and the five TL sub-dimensions are not supported by previous research. Bono and Judge (2004) found a positive relationship between extraversion and overall TL. Zopias and Constanti (2012) also found a statistically significant relationship between extraversion and TL, while Deinert et al. (2015) found a positive relationship between extraversion and an overall TL measure, as well as between extraversion and three TL sub-dimensions, namely idealised influence, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation.

The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that the Big Five personality factors could only explain 28.9% of the variance of a composite TL score, and that only one of the Big Five personality factors, namely emotional stability (anxiety), made a statistically unique contribution to predicting the composite TL score. This study thus indicated that the Big Five personality factors cannot be used to predict TL with any statistically significant accuracy.

In general, the results of the current study are disappointing when compared to previous research. In the current study, except for emotional stability, which had statistically significant relationships with a composite TL measure and all TL sub-dimensions, and agreeableness, which had a statistically significant but slight relationship with only two of the TL sub-dimensions (inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation), none of the other Big Five personality factors had statistically significant relationships with a composite TL score or the TL sub-dimensions. This is in contract to the meta-analysis by Bono and Judge (2004), who reported that a relationship, although slight, was found between TL and all the Big Five personality factors. This is also in contract to the work of Zopias and Constanti,



who found a statistically significant relationship between TL and all Big Five personality factors in the hotel industry. A follow-up meta-analysis by Deinert et al. (2015) also concluded that an overall TL measure and all the TL sub-dimensions were directly linked to the Big Five personality factors.

Researchers have offered various explanations for what could have an impact on the results of TL research. Phaneuf, Boudrias, Rousseau, and Brunelle (2016) argue that individual factors and the environmental context should be considered when researching TL. They found that leaders displaying relationship-oriented personalities display TL when they are supported by the organisational context. The context can enhance the likelihood of leaders demonstrating the behaviour or inhibiting the likelihood of displaying the behaviour. Therefore, the results of the research may have been affected by other factors, which were not controlled for in this study. Furthermore, research has suggested that attitudinal and affective factors may have an influence on whether the leader displays TL behaviour (Jin, Seo, & Shapiro, 2016).

Furthermore, cross-cultural studies on the research variables have reported significant differences in the relationships between personality traits and TL, with most seminal research emanating from North America and Europe (Hetland & Sandal, 2003). For instance, in a culture endorsing an authoritarian style, leader sensitivity might be interpreted as weak, whereas in a culture endorsing a more nurturing style, the same sensitivity is likely to prove essential for effective leadership. With expanding global markets, culturally diverse work teams and expatriate work assignments may enhance the understanding of such similarities and differences in leadership styles, and this may prove highly beneficial for ensuring effective leadership (Segalla, Fischer, & Sandner, 2000). An example is the study by Shao and Webber (2006) in a Chinese environment, which found that extraversion exhibited a negative relationship with TL. In general, they found that personality traits positively associated with TL were not evident in the Chinese environment.

## **LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES**

This study had several limitations. Firstly, the study was conducted in a retail organisation in South Africa and may not be generalisable to other organisations. Secondly, leaders self-reported on their TL behaviours and their Big Five personality factors, which may not be a true reflection of the leadership behaviour or personality, but their perceptions thereof (McDonald, 2008; Schyns & Sanders, 2007).

Thirdly, the relatively small sample size of 101 leaders may have contributed to the mostly statistically insignificant relationships obtained between the Big Five personality factors and TL behaviours. The small sample size could also have limited the predictive ability of the Big Five personality factors regarding TL. Fourthly, the cultural validity of the 15FQ+ may have had an impact on a sample consisting of mostly black Africans.

It is recommended that future studies use a larger sample and investigate the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL in other organisations besides the retail industry.

It is also recommended that moderating variables such as gender, age, years of experience as a leader, emotions and emotional intelligence be considered, as well as the context of the organisation and culture which could affect the strength of the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL.

### **Practical implications for management**

Research suggests that the new world of work would benefit from having leaders who display TL behaviour. Research has suggested that followers of transformational leaders are more productive because of increased employee engagement (Barrick, Thurgood, Smith, & Courtright, 2015), enabling a climate conducive to research and development (Berson & Linton, 2005), and creating an environment that enables technological innovation (Chen, Lin, Lin, & McDonough, 2012). A meta-analysis consisting of 600 samples, conducted by Ng (2017) to research the relationship between TL and organisational performance, found support for this relationship.

The current research does not support previous research conducted on TL and the Big Five personality factors, suggesting that the use of the Big Five personality factors to predict TL in a South African retail context cannot be supported.

### **CONCLUSION**

The utilisation of the 15FQ+ in the research could have had an impact on the results because of the high percentage of black Africans that comprised the majority of the sample.

In the current research, only one Big Five personality factor, namely emotional stability (anxiety), had a statistically significant relationship with TL and its dimensions. The Big Five personality factors should be used with caution to identify and develop potential TL behaviour in the diverse South African retail context.

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## **CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study will be discussed. The chapter will start with a discussion of the conclusions, regarding the aims of the study and the research hypotheses. Thereafter the limitations of the study will be discussed, and the chapter will be concluded with recommendations for future research, for the field of IOP and for the participating organisation.

### **4.2 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE AIMS OF THE STUDY**

#### **4.2.1 Conclusions regarding the specific theoretical aims of the study**

The study had three specific theoretical aims:

- To conceptualise the Big Five Factor Model of personality.
- To conceptualise TL.
- To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between the Big Five Factor Model of personality and TL.

##### **4.2.1.1 *The first theoretical aim***

*To conceptualise the Big Five Factor Model of Personality*

The first theoretical aim was attained in Chapter 2, and the following conclusions were drawn from the literature review:

- Personality can be described as the stability in an individual's behaviour over time across different situations, consistency and distinctiveness (Weiten, 2017). The modern psychological study of personality has its roots in three intellectual themes, namely a deep belief in individualism, a concern with irrationality and the unconscious (Winter & Barenbaum, 2008).

- According to Corr and Matthews (2009), there are six personality perspectives, namely psychodynamic, behavioural, social cognitive, humanistic, biological and trait perspectives.
- To date, the Five Factor Model of personality has been considered the dominant paradigm in personality research and one of the most influential models in psychological research (Corr & Matthews, 2009). The model, based on personality traits, has gained acclaim owing to its applicability to different contexts and its utility in providing a structure for classifying personality traits into five factors (Corr & Matthews, 2005).

The model suggests that there are five major factors of personality:

- Factor 1: Extraversion represents the tendency to be outgoing, assertive, active and excitement-seeking. Individuals scoring high on extraversion are strongly predisposed to experiencing positive emotions (Judge & Bono 2000; Judge, et al., 2002). The converse of extraversion is introversion, which refers to individuals who tend to focus on their inner world of thoughts, perceptions and experiences. Individuals scoring high on introversion do not require social contact or external stimulation (Psytech, 2000).
- Factor 2: Agreeableness consists of tendencies to be cooperative, kind, gentle, trusting and warm (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002). The converse of agreeableness is independence. Individuals who score high on independence tend to make decisions based on their own thoughts and beliefs. They can be experienced as strong-willed and confrontational (Psytech, 2000).
- Factor 3: Conscientiousness, which is also labelled self-control, is a measure of reliability. Such a person is responsible, organised, dependable and reliable (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002.). The converse of conscientiousness is low self-control.

Individuals who score low on conscientiousness tend to exhibit low levels of restraint and they are not influenced by social norms (Psytech, 2000).

- Factor 4: Emotional stability is often labelled by its opposite, neuroticism, which is the tendency to be anxious, fearful, depressed and moody. Emotional stability measures a person's ability to withstand stress, and such a person tends to be calm, self-confident and secure (Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002.).
- Factor 5: Openness to experience represents the tendency to be creative, imaginative, perceptive, and thoughtful. Openness to experience is the only Big Five trait to display significant correlations with intelligence (Judge & Bono 2000; Judge et al., 2002). The converse to openness to experience is pragmatism. Individuals scoring high on pragmatism tend to be influenced by hard facts and may be experienced as resistant to new ideas/possibilities (Psytech, 2000).
- To date, the trait theory of personality has achieved notable successes that have advanced the understanding of personality (Corr & Matthews, 2009). There are still concerns about how psychologists know whether traits are the right way to describe differences in personality.
- Despite the evidence of the universality of the Big Five Factor model of personality from structured inventories, studies conducted to examine the utility of the measure in different languages have found less support for its universality. In the South African context in which multiple languages are prevalent, obtaining a fair and comparable measurement has been identified as a challenge (Hill et al., 2013).

#### **4.2.1.2      *The second theoretical aim***

##### *To conceptualise TL*

The second theoretical aim was attained in Chapter 2 and the subsequent conclusions were drawn from the literature review:

- The topic of leadership effectiveness has been of interest for decades, especially the topic of what makes an individual an effective leader (Yukl, 2010). Leadership theories can be categorised into four approaches, namely trait, behavioural, contingency and contemporary.
- TL is a contemporary approach to leadership conceptualised by Burns (1978), with revisions proposed by Bass (1985), who conceptualised TL as part of a full-range leadership theory.
- Bass (1985) reported that data from many organisations internationally indicated that leaders who are highly rated on TL characteristics by superiors, peers or subordinates are associated with high-performing teams (Chemers, 2000). Factor analysis of data gathered yielded seven factors, including three "transactional" factors (contingent reward, management by exception, and laissez faire leadership) that were associated with moderate to poor leadership effects and four transformational factors that were associated with high levels of subordinate motivation and group or organisational success.
- The TL approach is characterised by four empirically derived factors, namely idealised influence (behaviours and attitudes), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Banks et al., 2016).
- A benefit of TL is that such leaders have proven to be more readily accepted by their staff than transactional leaders. They exhibit high levels of management effectiveness and leadership performance and are more likely to advance in organisations than leaders displaying other leadership styles (Johnsen et al., 2009; Mokgolo et al., 2012).
- Furthermore, TL has a reinforcing effect on organisational effectiveness and acts as a moderator between knowledge management and organisational effectiveness and it is the most important factor in improving organisational effectiveness (Chi et al., 2012).

#### **4.2.1.3      *The third theoretical aim***

*To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between the Big Five Factor Model of Personality and TL.*

The third theoretical aim was attained in Chapter 2, and the subsequent conclusions were drawn from the literature review:

- The study of the Big Five Factor Model of personality and TL has resulted in promising results, with correlations found between leadership characteristics and personality traits (Judge & Bono, 2004).
- When the Big Five Factor Model was applied to TL, Judge and Bono (2000) found that extraversion and agreeableness predicted TL and openness to experience was positively correlated with TL. However, their effect disappeared once the other traits were controlled. Lastly, neuroticism and conscientiousness were unrelated to TL.
- In a later study, Judge and Bono (2004) found that extraversion was the strongest and most consistent correlate of TL. However, overall, they found weak relationships and suggested future research on narrower personality traits.
- In contrast, Shao and Webber (2006) found that the personality traits positively associated with TL behaviour in North American context were not evident in the Chinese environment, providing further evidence of the contextual approach that could be taken in the study of leadership.
- Nielson and Daniels (2012) suggested that TL needs to be studied as a group phenomenon. The impact of group-level perceptions may impact followers' well-being and leaders need to be cognisant of the group as a whole in their interactions.
- Zopiatis and Constanti (2012) indicated that while TL is positively associated with extraversion, openness and conscientiousness, no association with agreeableness and

neuroticism could be found. This finding was contrary to what Judge and Bono (2004) reported. In addition, they found that the personality trait that best predicted a preference for a particular leadership style was conscientiousness. The results of their study indicated that individuals who are highly conscientious and diligent are likely to adopt a TL style.

- In light of the Five Factor model's utility in identifying TL, it is pertinent to study the relationship between the two variables in varying contexts. In their research on personality traits and TL, Zopiatis and Constanti (2012) suggested further research on other cultural groups to add to the existing knowledge on the relationship between the two variables.

#### **4.2.2 Conclusions regarding the specific empirical aims of the study**

The specific empirical aims were the following:

- To measure the Big Five Personality Factors in the retail industry using the Fifteen Factor Plus Personality Questionnaire (15FQ+).
- To measure TL in the retail industry using the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire.
- To determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between the Big Five Personality Factors and TL in the retail industry.
- To determine whether the Big Five Personality Factors can be used to predict TL in the retail industry.
- To recommend future areas for research regarding the Big Five Personality Factors and TL.
- To make recommendations for the field of IOP concerning the Big Five Personality Factors and TL.
- To make recommendations for the participating organisation.



#### **4.2.2.1      *The first empirical aim***

*To measure the Big Five personality factors in the retail industry using the 15FQ+*

The first empirical aim was attained by using the 15FQ+ to measure the Big Five personality factors from 101 purposely sampled employees. The subsequent conclusions were drawn from the empirical research:

- The internal consistency of the 15FQ+ was determined by using Cronbach's alpha. According to Salkind (2017), internal consistency examines how unified the items are in a test or assessment. A high Cronbach value signifies that the items are measuring the underlying (or latent) construct. Revelle and Zinbarg (2009) provided the following rules of thumb where reliability is:  $\geq .9$  = excellent,  $\geq .8$  = good,  $\geq .7$  = acceptable,  $\geq .6$  = questionable,  $\geq .5$  = poor, and  $< .5$  = unacceptable. According to Hair et al. (2014), the lower limit is .7 and it may decrease to .6 in exploratory research. In this research, .7 was used as an acceptable level.
- The results indicated that the internal consistency of the 15FQ+ was poor. Apart from extraversion (.06), the other four personality factors measured by the 15FQ+ all produced very low internal reliability statistics, with two negative Cronbach alphas. According to Revelle and Zinbarg (2009), these reliabilities can be classified as poor and the 15FQ+ was regarded as statistically unreliable for this study. However, statistics obtained from it were used for further analysis.
- It can thus be concluded that the 15FQ+ is not a reliable instrument for measuring the Big Five Factors of personality in a retail industry in South Africa.

#### **4.2.2.2      *The second empirical aim***

*To measure TL in the retail industry using the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire.*

The second empirical aim was attained by using the MLQ to measure TL from 101 purposefully sampled employees. The subsequent conclusions were drawn from the empirical research:

- The internal consistency of the MLQ was determined by using Cronbach's alpha. According to Salkind (2017), internal consistency examines how unified the items are in a test or assessment. A high Cronbach value signifies that the items are measuring the underlying (or latent) construct. Revelle and Zinbarg (2009) provided the following rules of thumb where reliability is:  $\geq .9$  = excellent,  $\geq .8$  = good,  $\geq .7$  = acceptable,  $\geq .6$  = questionable,  $\geq .5$  = poor, and  $< .5$  = unacceptable. According to Hair et al. (2014), the lower limit is .7 and it may decrease to .6 in exploratory research. In this research, .7 was used as an acceptable level of internal consistency.
- The results indicate that all dimensions measured by the MLQ produced high internal reliability statistics, ranging from a low of .966 for idealised attributes, inspirational motivation and individual consideration, to a high of .933 for the composite TL score. According to Revelle and Zinbarg (2009) these reliabilities can be classified as excellent and the MLQ can be considered reliable for this study. Statistics obtained from it can therefore be used for further analysis.
- It can thus be concluded that the MLQ is a reliable instrument for measuring TL in a retail institution in South Africa.

#### **4.2.2.3      *The third empirical aim***

*To determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between the Big Five Personality Factors and TL in the retail industry.*

The third empirical aim was attained by computing the correlation coefficients between the 15FQ+ score and a composite TL score.

- The results indicated that there are no statistically significant relationships between three of the Big Five personality factors, namely extraversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness, and any of the TL dimensions or the composite TL score.
- There are two statistically significant relationships between one Big Five personality factor, namely agreeableness, and two TL dimensions, namely inspirational motivation (.196;  $p < .05$ ) and individualised consideration (.200;  $p < .05$ ).
- Only one Big Five personality factor, namely emotional stability (anxiety), is statistically significantly related to all the TL dimensions as well as the composite TL score, ranging from a low of .539 ( $p < .01$ ) for idealised behaviour to a high of .556 ( $p < .01$ ) for the composite TL score.
- The current research does not support previous research conducted on TL and the Big Five personality factors, suggesting that the use of the Big Five personality factors to predict TL in a South African retail context cannot be supported.
- In the current study, except for emotional stability, which had statistically significant relationships between a composite TL measure and all TL sub-dimensions, and agreeableness, which had a statistically significant but small relationship with only two of the TL sub-dimensions (inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation), none of the other Big Five personality factors had statistically significant relationships with a composite TL score or the TL sub-dimensions.

#### **4.2.2.4      *The fourth empirical aim***

*To determine whether the Big Five Personality Factors can be used to predict TL in the retail industry.*

The fourth empirical aim was attained by calculating a standard multiple regression analysis with the Big Five traits of personality as measured by the 15FQ+ as the independent variables and the composite TL score as the dependent variable.

- The results indicated that 28.9% of the variance of a composite TL score is explained by the Big Five personality factors ( $F(5,95) = 9.124$ ;  $p < .001$ , Adjusted  $R^2 = .289$ ). This is a poor model, since the amount of variability explained is below 50% (Hair et al., 2014).
- Only one of the Big Five personality factors, namely emotional stability (anxiety), made a statistically unique contribution to predicting the composite TL score ( $\beta = .539$ ;  $p < .001$ ). None of the other four factors made a statistically significant contribution to the variability of the composite TL score, with extraversion having a small, statistically insignificant negative influence on the variance.

#### 4.2.2.5 *The fifth empirical aim*

*To recommend future areas for research regarding the Big Five Personality Factors and TL.*

- This will be addressed under **Recommendations section 4.4.1**

#### 4.2.2.6 *The sixth empirical aim*

*To make recommendations for the field of IOP concerning the Big Five Personality Factors and TL.*

- This will be addressed under **Recommendations section 4.4.2**

#### 4.2.2.7 *The seventh empirical aim*

*To make recommendations for the participating organisation.*

- This will be addressed under **Recommendations section 4.4.3**

### 4.2.3 **Conclusion regarding the general aim of the study**

The general aim of the study was to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL. The empirical research indicated that only one of the

Big Five personality factors had a statistically significant relationship with a composite TL score. The conclusion can thus be made that the general aim of the study was attained.

#### **4.2.4 Conclusions regarding the research hypotheses**

The following conclusions were made regarding the research hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between TL and its sub-dimensions and the Big Five personality factors.

- The hypothesis is not supported by the research, as the results indicated that there were no statistically significant relationships between three of the Big Five personality factors, namely extraversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness, and any of the TL dimensions or the composite TL score. There are two statistically significant relationships between one Big Five personality factor, namely agreeableness, and two TL dimensions, namely inspirational motivation (.196;  $p < .05$ ), and individualised consideration (.200;  $p < .05$ ). Only one Big Five personality factor, namely emotional stability (anxiety), is statistically significantly related to all the TL dimensions as well as the composite TL score, ranging from a low of .539 ( $p < .01$ ) for idealised behaviour to a high of .556 ( $p < .01$ ) for the composite TL score.

Hypothesis 2: The Big Five personality factors is a statistically significant predictor of a composite TL score.

- The hypothesis is not supported by the research, as the results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that the Big Five personality factors could only explain 28.9% of the variance of a composite TL score, and that only one of the Big Five personality factors, namely emotional stability, made a statistically unique contribution to predicting the composite TL score. This study thus indicated that the Big Five personality factors cannot be used to predict TL with any statistically significant accuracy.

### **4.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The current study experienced a number of limitations associated with the literature review and the empirical findings.

#### **4.3.1 Limitations of the literature review**

- The first limitation of the research was a paucity of published research on the research variables, namely TL and the Big Five personality factors. Abundant research has been done internationally; however, research in the South African context and specifically in the retail context is limited.
- The lack of existing research impacted the researcher's ability to incorporate recent literature to support the research findings. Furthermore, limited research has been done in the South African context utilizing the TL tool within the context of this study.

#### **4.3.2 Limitations of the empirical findings**

- The relatively small sample size of 101 leaders may have contributed to the mostly statistically insignificant relationships obtained between the Big Five personality factors and TL behaviour. The small sample size could also have limited the predictive ability of the Big Five personality factors regarding TL. A larger sample may have provided more information regarding the relationships between the Big Five personality factors and TL and revealed more insight into the demographic differences.

The internal reliabilities obtained for the Big Five personality factors measured by the 15FQ+ in the current study were poor. Four of the Big Five personality measurements were very negative Cronbach alphas. According to Revelle and Zinbarg (2009), the use of the instrument for measuring the Big Five personality factors among black participants should be done with caution. The fact that the sample consisted of mainly black Africans indicated that the use of the 15FQ+ for the current sample could be a limitation.

- The study was conducted in a retail organisation in South Africa and may not be generalisable to the general population and other contexts.
- Lastly, the leaders self-reported on their TL behaviour and their Big Five personality factors, which may not be a true reflection of their actual leadership behaviour or personality, but only their own perceptions (McDonald, 2008; Schyns & Sanders, 2007).

#### **4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

##### **4.4.1 Recommendations for future areas for research regarding the Big Five Personality Factors and TL**

- A larger sample should be used to determine whether more statistically significant relationships between the Big Five personality factors and TL can be obtained.
- The relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL in other organisations besides the retail industry should be investigated.
- Qualitative research methods should be used to explore the experience of leadership and personality by participants.
- A longitudinal research design should be used to identify causal factors, limiting the impact of extraneous variables on the data (Creswell, 2014).
- Moderating variables such as gender, age and years of experience as a leader should be incorporated into future studies to determine their influence on the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL.
- As the context of the organisation and prevailing culture could affect the strength of the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL, they should also be

included as mediating variables in future studies, as they could act as enablers or disablers regarding the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and TL.

- The study should be replicated using a different instrument to measure the Big Five personality factors, as the validity and reliability of the instrument used in the current study were found to be less than satisfactory when used for assessing black African participants.

#### **4.4.2 Recommendations for the field of IOP concerning the Big Five Personality Factors and TL**

- Personality and TL are important constructs in IOP, so continuous research should be conducted to broaden understanding of the relationship between the two constructs in the South African context.
- Despite the current research not supporting previous research, there is value in further studies of the constructs in other contexts.
- The 15FQ+ to measure the Big Five personality factors of black African participants should be used with caution when assessing personality.

#### **4.4.3 Recommendations for the participating organization**

- Typical of other retail organisations, the participating organisation in this study is labour-intensive, with leadership required at multiple levels. Challenges in the retail industry, which is characterised by changes in technology, shifts in consumer behaviour, growing complexity and increased competition, necessitate effective leadership, thus it is suggested that additional studies be conducted to investigate the relationship between other organisational variables and TL (Van der Westuizen & Kok, 2006).



- Research suggests that the new world of work would benefit from having leaders who display TL behaviour, as TL has been shown to influence innovation positively (Chen et al., 2012) and increased employee engagement (Barrick et al., 2015). The participating organisation should thus invest in the training of leaders on TL.
- A TL style has been shown to enable leaders to adapt to changing requirements in the industry and the organisation (Van der Westhuizen & Kok, 2006). As the participating organisation is confronted with continuous change as part of the retail industry, leaders should be developed in terms of TL on a continuous basis.
- The current assessment of TL in the participating organisation should be used to compile development plans for individual leaders that who participated in the research.

## **4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study were discussed. The chapter started with a discussion of the conclusions regarding the aims of the study and the research hypotheses. Thereafter the limitations of the study were discussed, and the chapter concluded with recommendations for future research, for the field of IOP and for the participating organisation.

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